A ſum of ſeven hundred and fifty thouſand livres, which had been taken from the contributions impoſed upon Verona, and put into the military cheſt, was diſtributed by Angereau to the different ſtaff officers who happened to be in that city at the capitulation. The *maximum* of the gratification was ten thouſand livres; the *minimum* ſix hundred: each ſoldier received twenty-four. This diſtribution did not pleaſe Buonaparte: "What ſhall we give," ſaid he, "to the conquerors of Lodi, of Arcola, and of Ronco?" He immediately ordered a ſum equivalent to a fortnight's pay to be given to every officer who had received nothing.

It is ſaid that an ambaſſador was ſecretly ſent to Charles XII. of Sweden, by Peter the Great, to ſolicit peace. He found him in a cloſet, alone, and occupied in looking over a map, in order to find out the ſhorteſt road to Moſcow. Scarcely had the ambaſſador uttered a few words, which announced the object of his miſſion, when Charles XII. rudely interrupted him: "I will treat with your maſter," ſaid he, "in his palace at Moſcow." Buonaparte, in a private conference with Prince Charles, behaved with as much pride, but with more decency. With one hand he preſented to him the olive branch, in the other he held a ſword. "*Accept peace,*" ſaid he, "*or content yourſelf with a place of municipal officer at Vienna.*"

When Buonaparte heard that ſome hundreds of republicans had been maſſacred at the hoſpital of Verona, he curſed that city, would not enter it on his return from Tyrol, and blamed one of the generals, who commanded under the walls of that place, for not having reduced it to aſhes.

At the time of the treaty of Campo Formio, the Emperor inſiſted upon the Iſlands of Corfu, Zante, and Cephaloni, being ceded to him, along with Dalmatia. With a view of obtaining peace, Buonaparte would perhaps have made the ſacrifice, had not an old Greek, with the map in his hand, demonſtrated to him, that, if he gave up thoſe iſlands, the Emperor would no longer meet with any obſtacles in getting poſſeſſion of the reſt of Greece. "At laſt," ſaid he, "he will take Conſtantinople."—"And I, Vienna," ſaid Buonaparte eagerly. It appears that the advice of the good old man was not thrown away.

The Empreſs of Germany.
Maria Thereſa.

PLEASURES, in the common acceptation of the term, ſhe can ſcarcely be ſaid to have any. She riſes generally at a very early hour; during ſummer at five, and even in January, at ſix in the morning. After her private devotions ſhe hears a maſs, and proceeds immediately to diſpatch buſineſs. Her conſtant breakfaſt is milk-coffee. At noon ſhe hears a ſecond maſs, and then her dinner is ſerved, which by no means conſiſts of many diſhes. Parſimonious of her time, ſhe uſually dines alone, and inſtantly reſumes the conſideration of public affairs. During the ſummer, when ſhe is moſtly at the palace of Schonbrun, in the vicinity of Vienna, if the weather permit, ſhe frequently paſſes ſeveral hours in a covered walk of the gardens, to which ſhe can repair from her own apartments. The walk is on a level with her chamber, in order to facilitate her paſſage to it. A centinel, ſtationed at the entrance, prevents all interruption; and the empreſs has a little box, which is buckled round her waiſt, full of papers, letters, and memorials. She peruſes them all, remains four or five hours at a time in this employment, marks ſuch as appear to deſerve attention, and enters into the minuteſt detail upon every point. So wholly is ſhe occupied with concerns of ſtate that it frequently happens, the archduchеſſes her daughters, though they reſide in the ſame palace, cannot procure a moment's

moment's access to her, from the hour of her getting up till evening. At six o'clock the empress finishes her application to business, and hears benediction. Between eight and half past, she commonly retires to bed. This is the exact relation of an ordinary day, as it is passed by Maria Theresa.

Neither exempt from, nor superior to the uncharitable notions which bigotry necessarily inspires, she firmly believes every heretic excluded from the divine mercy; but of all heretics, she conceives the *English* to be the most *impenitent*, *hardened*, and *irreclaimable!* I know that she enjoined her youngest son, the Archduke Maximilian, when she permitted him to visit France and the Low Countries, on no consideration whatever to pass over into England. Her apprehension of his being corrupted by the contagious society of London, and losing all his religious principles or impressions, was the motive of this curious prohibition. She exacted a similar promise from the Emperor himself, when he went to Paris. "The English," said she to him, "are almost all deists, infidels, and freethinkers. I tremble, lest an intercourse with such a nation should contaminate your manners, and shake your belief in every thing sacred among catholics!"

Rigaud the Painter.

Rigaud, in the course of his life, had the honour to paint the portraits of five monarchs, all the princes of the blood royal of France, and many of the most distinguished persons of Europe.

It was his custom to keep an exact register of the name, the rank, and the age of all those whom he painted, as well as of the year in which the picture was painted, and the price which he was paid for it. He was not over fond of painting ladies. "If I paint them as they really are they are dissatisfied," said he; "and if I make them all handsome, how very few of their portraits will be like!"

A lady who was highly painted was one day sitting to him; she complained of the glare of his colours: "We both of us buy them at the same shop," replied the artist.

A Banian Tree.

Near Munjee, a small town at the confluence of the Gogra and Ganges, there is a remarkable large *Bur*, or *Banian tree*. All the trees of this species are distinguished objects in an Indian landscape, on account of their singularity of growth. The branches shoot out to a considerable distance from the main stem, in nearly a horizontal direction; after which they let down to the ground a number of leafless fibres, which presently take root, coalesce and increase in bulk, so as to support the protracted branches like a second trunk. From these new centres of vegetation, other arms again spring out, and at their termination form a third series of stems, so that a full-grown Banian-tree composes a grove of itself. The individual in question, from the opposite high banks of the Ganges, at the distance of about eight miles, appeared of a pyramidal shape, with an easy spreading slope from its summit to the extremity of the lower branches, and of such a size, as at first to be mistaken for a small hill. The middle stem is considerably higher than any of our English trees, and the following comprise its other principal dimensions:

Diameter of the branches from north to south, 363 feet.

Ditto of ditto from east to west, 375 feet.

Circumference of the shadow of the branches at noon, 1116 feet.

The number of props or derivative stems amounts to between 50 and 60.

DES-

DESCRIPTION OF THE ANCIENT TENTYRIS OR TENTYRA, IN EGYPT.

IT was not in their architecture alone that the Egyptians displayed that affection for posterity, that love of immortality which presides in all their works; they wished also that the painting they employed should be equally durable. The colours which they made use of, the two-edged tool serving to incorporate them closely and forever with bodies as hard and as solid as stone, are so many proofs of their profound knowledge in the arts, and so many secrets, which our researches have not yet been able to discover. The cieling of the temple of *Dendera* is painted in fresco, of the brilliant colour of azure blue, with which the vault of the firmament shines in fine weather: the figures in relief strewed along its bottom, are painted of a beautiful yellow; and these paintings, at the expiration of some thousand of years, possess still a brilliancy to which our freshest colours do not approach, and they are still as lively as if they had been newly laid on.

I have said that the front of the temple, an admirable and but little known work of the genius and the patience which, among the ancient people in Egypt, produced wonders, was an hundred and thirty-two feet, and some inches in length. I took its other dimentions with the same exactness. The depth of the peristyle is an hundred and fifteen feet three inches, and its breadth sixty feet eleven inches. The two sides of the edifice are two hundred and fifty-four feet nine inches and a half in length; finally, the depth is a hundred and ten feet eleven inches. The summit of the temple is flattened, and formed of very large stones, which are laid from one pillar to another, or on two walls of separation. Several of these masses are eighteen feet long and six broad. Rubbish heaped up and the sand which collects there, have raised the soil to a level with the roof of the building, and you easily ascend it from behind, although the front is still elevated seventy feet above ground. The inhabitants of this canton had availed themselves of this disposition; they had built a village on the very summit of the temple, as on a basis more firm than the inconstant sands of marshy earth, upon which they generally erect their dwellings. When I was at *Dendera*, this modern village was dissolated and overthrown; its ruins of hardened mud formed a singular contrast with the magnificent remains of the ancient city of *Tentyris*. We beheld there with sorrow the most complete proof of the total annihilation of the arts, in a country which had given birth and such an astonishing perfection to them, and the still more deplorable decline of the human mind.

From Sonini's Travels.

CHARACTER OF THE RUSSIAN SOLDIERS.

THE Russian soldier supports fatigue and endures hunger and thirst without ever murmuring. He is born a slave; and from the moment at which he is capable of reflection, he perceives that he has a master, whose will is a law to him. Familiarised as he is with this idea, which alone engrosses his attention, he submits to a passive and absolute obedience. The order of the sovereign assembles thousands of warriors under the Imperial banners; those on whom the lot falls receive the farewell of their parents and friends, whom they do not expect ever to see again; and they cheerfully go to encounter death. They are placed before a battery, as, in time of peace, they would mount guard; it is their post, to which the order of their commander fixes them, and they have no

idea

idea of abandoning it. To their intrepidity and reſolution, religion adds its weight. Moſt of the Ruſſian peaſants believe in predeſtination; and with ſuch a belief, what dangers will not a man encounter?

Frugality he poſſeſſes from habit; being accuſtomed, from a child, to ſubſiſt on onions, (and even theſe he has not always,) bad bread, and vegetables that are frequently eaten raw. The military ſtate produces no change in his mode of living. This abſtemiouſneſs does not extend to ſpirituous liquors, of which the inhabitant of the north reluctantly deprives himſelf, and which he ſteals wherever he finds any. The Ruſſian ſoldier bears fatigue, cold, and heat, becauſe his education has ſeaſoned him to all: he paſſes from one extreme to the other without perceiving it; and thus whole regiments have not loſt a ſingle man during marches that would have proved the deſtruction of other troops. When a camp is deſtitute of proviſions, a faſt of two or three days is proclaimed as having been ordered by the ſovereign; and the army ſubmit without murmurs, "*becauſe it is God's and the Czar's will.*"

The mechanical obedience of the ſoldier cauſes him to ſtand immoveable before the enemy's fire, or to mount repeatedly to the aſſault of a battery or a breach, though death preſent itſelf to his eyes under various forms. The following anecdote will convey a farther idea of the nature of Ruſſian obedience:

On the 22d of September 1777, there happened at Peterſburgh a ſudden inundation, of very conſiderable extent. The Empreſs, ſeeing from her balcony that the water came within reach of the ſentinel placed before the palace, called out to him to retire within doors, which the ſoldier refuſed to do. The Empreſs aſked him whether he knew her; the man replied in the affirmative, and that, though he knew her majeſty, no one but his corporal was able to relieve him. The waters increaſed, and reached the centinel's mid-leg. The Empreſs ſent ſeveral meſſages to him, but all to no purpoſe. It now became requiſite to call the corporal, who was found aſleep in the guard-houſe, and he was obliged almoſt to ſwim to the relief of the honeſt private; who, by that time having only his head and ſhoulders above the water, would compoſedly have ſuffered himſelf to be drowned, notwithſtanding the formal and repeated orders of his ſovereign.

To the motives already aſſigned, is to be added the hope of plunder, of which he never loſes ſight; and above all, the *certainty* of receiving his death from behind, if any thing ſhould tempt him to fly from his duty *. From the union of all theſe cauſes, proceeds the ſingular aſſemblage of thoſe qualities which diſtinguiſh the Ruſſian ſoldier.—With ſuch troops, no conqueſt is impoſſible.

But, as human affairs are never perfect, the Ruſſian armies are deficient in a very material point, having few or no officers who deſerve that name. There are, however, among the *General* officers ſome men of merit.

The manner in which the general officers behave to the ſubalterns, and that in proportion as their degrees deſcend, either contributes to their abaſement or is the conſequence of it; they addreſs them in terms of degrading familiarity, and call the ſoldiers *brothers*. This, indeed, is the beſt method of making the Ruſſians do what is deſired. An officer who treats them in a confidential way, and, in appearance, takes an intereſt in their well-being, is ſure of leading them whitherſoever he pleaſes.

* The four ſuperior officers of every company, and the very numerous inferior officers, form a third rank behind, and have no other occupation, during an engagement, than that of preventing the men from falling back, or putting the private to death, if he ſhould be regardleſs of their orders.

HISTORICAL REMARKS ON SUICIDE.

ALLOW me; Sir, to put together ſome remarks on the crime of ſuicide; for, to whatever cauſe it may be imputed among us, and I have no heſitation in aſſerting that the prevalence of infidelity muſt be the cauſe in a nation profeſſing Chriſtianity, we ſhall find that almoſt every nation has exhibited examples of it.

It is, however, one of thoſe crimes which we are led to believe is not very common among ſavage nations. The firſt inſtances of it recorded in the Jewiſh hiſtory, are thoſe of Saul and Ahitophel; for the death of Simſon cannot be reckoned a proper example. We have no reaſon to ſuppoſe that it became common among the Jews, till their wars with the Romans, when multitudes ſlaughtered themſelves, that they might not fall alive into the hands of their enemies. But at this period, the Jews were a moſt deſperate and abandoned race of men, had corrupted the religion of their fathers, and rejected that pure ſyſtem which their promiſed Meſſiah came to Jeruſalem to announce.

When it became remarkable among the Greeks, we have not been able to diſcover, but it was forbidden by Pythagoras, as we learn from Athenæus, by Socrates and Ariſtotle, and by the Theban and Athenian laws. In the earlieſt ages of the Roman republic, it was ſeldom committed; but when luxury, and the epicurean and ſtoical philoſophy had corrupted the ſimplicity and virtue of the Roman character, then they began to ſeek ſhelter in ſuicide from their misfortunes, or the effects of their own vices.

The religious principles of the bramins of India led them to admire ſuicide on particular occaſions as honourable. Accuſtomed to abſtinence, mortification, and the contempt of death, they conſidered it as a mark of weakneſs of mind to ſubmit to the infirmities of old age. We are informed that the modern Gentoos, who ſtill in moſt things conform to the cuſtoms of their anceſtors, when old and infirm, are frequently brought to the banks of rivers, particularly to thoſe of the Ganges, that they may die in its ſacred ſtreams, which they believe can waſh away the guilt of their ſins. But the maxims of the bramins, which have encouraged this practice, we are aſſured by Mr Hollwell are a corruption of the doctrines of the Shaſtah, which poſitively forbid ſuicide under the ſevereſt puniſhment. The practice which religion or affection has eſtabliſhed among the Gentoos, for women, at the death of their huſbands, to burn themſelves alive on the funeral pile, ought not to be conſidered as ſuicide, for were the meaning of the word to be extended thus far, it would be as proper to apply it to thoſe who choſe rather to die in battle, than to make their eſcape at the expence of their honour. According to the Gentoo laws, "it is proper for a woman after her huſband's death to burn herſelf in the fire with his corpſe; every woman who thus burns ſhall remain in paradiſe with her huſband three crore and fifty lacks of years. If ſhe cannot, ſhe muſt in that caſe preſerve an inviolable chaſtity. If ſhe remains chaſte, ſhe goes to paradiſe; and if ſhe does not preſerve her chaſtity, ſhe goes to hell."

A cuſtom ſimilar to this prevailed among many nations on the continent of America. When a chief died, a certain number of his wives, of his favourites, and of his ſlaves, were put to death, and interred together with him that he might appear with the ſame dignity in his future ſtation, and be waited upon by the ſame attendants. This perſuaſion is ſo deeply rooted, that many of their retainers offer themſelves as victims; and the ſame cuſtom prevails in many of the negro nations in Africa.

If we can believe the hiſtorians of Japan, voluntary death is common in

that empire. The devotees of the idol Amida, drown themſelves in his preſence, attended by their relations and friends, and ſeveral of the prieſts, who all conſider the devoted perſon as a ſaint, who is gone to everlaſting happineſs. Such being the ſuppoſed honours appropriated to a voluntary death, it is not ſurpriſing that the Japaneſe anxiouſly cheriſh a contempt of life. Accordingly, it is a part of the education of their children, "to repeat poems in which the virtues of their anceſtors are celebrated, an utter contempt of life is inculcated, and ſuicide is ſet up as the moſt heroic of actions."

A notion ſeems alſo to have prevailed among the ancient Scythian tribes, that it was puſillanimous and ignoble for a man whoſe ſtrength was waſted with diſeaſe or infirmity, ſo as to be uſeleſs to the community, to continue to live. It was reckoned an heroic action, voluntarily to ſeek that death which he had not the good fortune to meet in the field of battle. Perverſion of moral feeling does not ſpring up, it is to be hoped, ſpontaneouſly in any nation, but is produced by ſome peculiarities of ſituation. A wandering people like the Scythians, who roamed about from place to place, might often find it impoſſible to attend the ſick, or to ſupply from their precarious ſtore the wants of the aged and infirm. The aged and infirm themſelves, no longer able to ſupport the character of warriors, would find themſelves unhappy. In this way the practice of putting to death ſuch perſons as were uſeleſs to the community might originate, and afterward be inculcated as honourable; but he who put an end to his infirmities by his own hand, obtained a character ſtill more illuſtrious.

The tribes of Scandinavia, which worſhipped Odin, the "Father of ſlaughter," were taught, that dying in the field of battle, was the moſt glorious event that could befall them. This was a maxim ſuited to a warlike nation. In order to eſtabliſh it more firmly in the mind, all were excluded from Odin's feaſt of heroes who died a natural death. In Aſgardia, ſtood the hall of Odin; where, ſeated on a throne, he received the ſouls of his departing heroes. Natural death being thus deemed inglorious, and puniſhed with excluſion from Valhalla (the hall of thoſe who died by violence) the paradiſe of Odin, he who could not enjoy death in the field of battle, was led to ſeek it by his own hands, when ſickneſs or old age began to aſſail him. In ſuch a nation, ſuicide muſt have been very common.

As ſuicide prevailed much in the decline of the Roman empire, when luxury, licentiouſneſs, profligacy, and falſe philoſophy, pervaded the world, ſo it continued to prevail even after Chriſtianity was eſtabliſhed. The Romans, when they became converts to Chriſtianity, did not renounce their ancient prejudices and falſe opinions, but blended them with the new religion which they embraced. The gothic nations alſo, who ſubverted the Roman empire, while they received the Chriſtian religion, adhered to many of their former opinions and manners. Among other criminal practices, which were retained by the Romans and their conquerors, that of ſuicide was one; but the principles from which it proceeded were explained, ſo as to appear more agreeable in the new ſyſtem which they had eſpouſed. It was committed, either to ſecure them from the danger of apoſtacy, to procure the honour of martyrdom, to preſerve the crown of virginity.

In all theſe inſtances, ſelected from the hiſtory of ancient nations, it will be ſeen that ſuicide differed in this reſpect from the ſame crime committed in our days, that among thoſe barbarous, or ſemi-barbarous nations, it was committed in the proſpect of

great reward or honour. It had, if we may ſo ſpeak, a rational object in view, and it was conſiſtent with authorized practices or eſtabliſhed laws.

But when we deſcend to modern times, we muſt lament to find ſo many inſtances of ſuicide among the moſt poliſhed nations, who have the beſt opportunities of knowing the atrocity of that unnatural crime. The Engliſh have long been reproached by foreigners for the frequent commiſſion of it; and the "gloomy month of November," has been ſtigmatized, but unjuſtly, as the ſeaſon when it is moſt common. Mr Moore, who ſome years ago publiſhed a voluminous work on this ſubject, was at great pains to obtain accurate information concerning the perpetration of this crime in different countries. Mercier, who wrote in 1782, ſays that the annual number of ſuicides in Paris, was then about 150. He does not tell us how he came by the information; but we have the authority of the Abbe Fontana for aſſerting, that more perſons put an end to their lives in Paris, than in London. The Abbe had this information from the lieutenant of the police. Mr Moore was informed by one of the principal magiſtrates of Geneva, that in that city, which contains about 25,000 inhabitants, the average number of ſuicides is about eight. The average number of ſuicides, for the laſt twenty eight years, has been thirty-two each year for London, Southwark, and Weſtminſter. I mean to ſay it is *ſtated ſo*. Mr Moore found, from the accounts with which he was favoured by the ſeveral coroners of the county of Kent, that for the laſt eighteen years the number has been upward of thirty-two each year.

REMARKS ON SOME MODERN TRAGEDIES.

THE ſucceſs of the very popular play of Pizarro, has induced many ladies and gentlemen to tranſlate into our language, every ſcrap they can find written by Kotzebue, and I verily believe that if they could find a few of his letters, or even his play-bills, they would think them not unworthy of being preſented to the public in an Engliſh dreſs. Although, however, I am as willing as any one to allow the full merit, and that a great ſhare of merit to the German dramas of this, and other authors of the ſame ſtage, there are faults in them ſo glaring and ſo diſguſting to the *eye* of taſte, not to ſpeak of the *ear*, that our own writers, and the public at large, cannot be too frequently cautioned againſt them. What I particularly allude to at preſent, is, that ſo much of the feeling and energy is confined within *crotchets*, inſtead of making part of the *dialogue*. In this there is an *artifice*, which muſt ever ſhow the inferiority of the beſt writers to Shakſpeare (to whom they have been compared) who never once condeſcends to inſtruct either an actor or reader, in the way in which he ſhould ſhape his features or his body, his dialogue being always impaſſioned ſufficiently to ſhow its meaning.

As a proof of my remark, I will give you the *crotchet* parts, as they may be called of only one ſcene in Kotzebue's play of *Self-immolation*, which has been acted in the Haymarket, under the name of *Family Diſtreſs*. It is the ſcene where Maxwell is reſtored to his family after an attempt at Suicide. The whole impaſſionate part is *written*, if I may uſe ſo odd an expreſſion, in dumb ſhow, and the firſt words of the dialogue come from Hartoop, a ſentimental *porter*.

Scene 12. *Enter Maxwell, Walwyn, and Harrington.*

Max. [Still of a death-like paleneſs in his countenance—his hair hanging down in diſorder—his looks down-caſt— is led by Walwyn to Arabella.]

Ara. [Attempting to rife, is unable, but finks back, and holds out her arms.]

Max. [Kneels before her, and with involuntary feebleneſs, lays his head on her lap.]

Ara. [Bends ſobbing over him.]

Hart. [Wipes his eyes with his fingers awkwardly.]

Harr. [Stands loſt in deep thought; and now and then caſts a look on the re-united pair.]

Max. [Liſts up his head, and looks on Arabella with an expreſſion of anguiſh.]

Ara. [Claſps his neck, and joins her cheek to his.]

Wal. [Beholds them with ſtrong emotion.]

And then begins the dialogue. Now, Mr Editor, I ſhould be glad to know what this is? Is it comedy, tragedy, or farce? If all the rules of the drama are not to be ſacrificed to the new faſhion, if we ſtill have a law whereby to diſtinguiſh between one kind of drama and another, this is mere *pantomime*, and ſuch inſtructions are written down by the contrivers of pantomimes for the uſe of Harlequin, Columbine, and the reſt of the motely family, a family who are ſuppoſed to have more underſtanding in their heels than their head, and conſequently muſt be taught to humour the ſcent. But what would Garrick have ſaid, if the writer of a play had preſcribed to him how he ſhould look and feel?

Another inſtance, however, before we have done, and here I ſhall borrow a remark or two from an eminent critic. In Adelaide of Wolfinger, a tragedy by the ſame author, there is a ſcene, in which Sir Hugo is ſuddenly informed of the caſual marriage contracted between his ſon and daughter during his abſence in Paleſtine. This ſituation would have ſeverely taſked the invention of a tragic writer of the old ſchool; horror, remorſe, affection and ſhame, would have been diſplayed in burſts of impaſſioned eloquence. The German hero's ſpeech conſiſts of two words; Well! Proceed! Quiet words in themſelves; but they are made to affect the reader in a wonderful manner, by means of the directions between crotchets, which are very pathetic indeed.

Hugo. [Starts like a man who ſuddenly eſpies a phantom, but has courage enough to run toward it, and unmaſk it. The muſcles of his face, for ſome moments, expreſs an inward ſtruggle, which, however, ſoon ſubſides. That ſerenity, which ever accompanies firmly-rooted principles, reſumes its place in his countenance, and he turns to Bertram.] *Well! proceed!!!*

This pantomime reminds us of Puff's actor in the Critic, who inculcates ſo many political truths by the ſignificant manner of ſhaking his head. How differently, it has been remarked, is the ſilent anguiſh of Shakſpeare's Macduff impreſſed on our feelings! The paſſage in Shakſpeare ſtands thus:

Roſſe. Your caſtle is ſurpriſed; your wife and babes
Savagely ſlaughter'd; to relate the manner,
Were, on the quarry of theſe murdered deer
To add the death of you.

Malcolm. Merciful Heaven!
What, man, ne'er pull your hat upon your brows,
Give ſorrow words; the grief that does not ſpeak,
Whiſpers the o'er fraught heart, and bids it break.

Macduff. My children too!

There needs no marginal notes to inform us what have been the workings of Macduff's paſſions, previous to this exclamation; it is the cry of nature, and penetrates every heart. Let us try how this pathetic ſcene would appear in the new ſtyle of writing.

Malcolm. Thunder of heaven!

Macduff. [Draws forward his bonnet, ſo as to conceal his eyes; croſſes his arms on his breaſt; ſtamps, gnaws his under-lip; the whole muſcles of the body expreſſing violence of reſentment, grief, and deſire of revenge; he then looks up to heaven, afterward turns to Roſſe, and ſays, in a broken voice] *Go on!*

You perceive, Mr Editor, that if this way of *writing* be adopted, and there are ſome imitations of it in our own dramas, the dialogue may be furniſhed at a much ſmaller expence

of genius than has been the case hitherto, and an author, instead of ransacking his brains for something to say, has only to request the actor to supply his defects by gestures, as *per margin*! In genteel comedy, for instance, instead of the sprightly dialogue of people of wit and *ton*, we shall have a few broken sentences here and there, with the intervals filled up with directions how to look, to move, to hold the arms, to display the fan, toss the head, turn upon the heel, take snuff, &c. &c. In short, instead of the attic salt of old English wit and humour, we shall have merely directions for a species of *Manual Exercise* adapted to the stage.

I am, Sir, yours,

DRAMATICUS.

ON THE INFLUENCE OF A GOOD DINNER ON PROMOTING HAPPINESS.

HAPPENING to dine a few days ago in a pretty large company, the conversation, as I believe is not unusual, turned upon the many good things which had decorated our well-spread table, and it afforded me some amusement, to see with what appetite the company devoured again, in imagination, the choice articles they had just feasted upon in reality. Mirth and good-humour enlivened every word, every joke, every expression, and for a few hours we might be said to be a very happy set.

It occurred to me, after retiring from this day's pleasure, that a dissertation might be written, 'on the influence of a good dinner in promoting human happiness,' and although I do not pretend to be capable of writing a regular dissertation on any subject, I ventured to take up my pen on the present occasion, and transmit to you a few hints on the efficacy of *dining well*.

Our country, above all others, is noted for its dinners. On the continent, dinners are generally short meals; there is no circulation of wine by means of toasts, and tea and coffee are immediately called, and the company soon breaks up. It is not so with us. Dinner is a serious concern. It is the subject of much previous thought and preparation. There is some merit attached to the man who has skill to order a dinner that shall be universally agreeable, and there is more merit yet in furnishing the table with such a treat. Hence a good landlord is a man of high estimation among his friends, whether he receive money, or only thanks for his provision, and even an attentive servant or waiter, is a person we always speak of with considerable respect, and reward liberally.

It does not, however, often happen that a whole company are unanimous in their commendations of what is set before them. Some men, who live only to eat, and whose *entire* happiness is in the indulgence of appetite, acquire a fastidiousness which it is very difficult to provide against. They are critics of great precision in all affairs of the kitchen, such accurate judges of hours and minutes for dressing various articles, as to be able to detect the smallest error, whether it lean to the side of *doing* too much, or *doing* too little. They are profoundly skilled in the art of making a good brown, show infinite sagacity in the ingredients of a sauce, and can see farther into an oven than the most expert bakers. Their penetration wonderfully extends to the depths of a tureen, and they discover a knowledge of *cuts*, which baffles the research of many a philosopher. Versed in the theory as well as the practice of eating, it is not easy to impose upon them fictitious appetites, and when an attempt is made to substitute an inferior article, it is impossible to controul their passions.

The influence of a good dinner in promoting happiness, is now established by universal custom. It is the chain

that

that binds large as well as ſmall ſocieties together. and we never hear of a ſociety or club, meeting together to diſcuſs the buſineſs of ſuch ſociety or club, without firſt diſcuſſing the merits of a good dinner. All charitable plans are firſt announced to the world by means of a dinner. What laying a foundation ſtone is to the builder, ſuch is a dinner to the projectors of any ſcheme of public charity or utility. and the annual or biennial repetition of it becomes abſolutely neceſſary in promoting the welfare of the plan. It has, indeed, been found in a variety of inſtances that men are better men after dinner than before, and that the heart as well as the ſtomach receives conſiderable improvement from a full meal, which perhaps for this reaſon is called a *hearty* meal; it is likewiſe diſcovered that men are never ſo inclined to make others happy as when they are happy themſelves, and conſequently, as a good dinner produces the latter effect, it muſt alſo produce the former. It would certainly be a very awkward circumſtance, if there were no exceptions to this rule. That would be reducing man too much to the ſtate of a machine, and eſtabliſhing a connexion between the ſoul and body rather too intimate. Now, although the caſe be very general, yet I am convinced there are many whoſe public ſpirit does not depend on their appetite, and who do not require the *lark* to give them either an appetite or humanity. But ſtill the happineſs which a good dinner generally diffuſes is too well aſcertained not to juſtify thoſe who endeavour to make that happineſs diffuſe.

From theſe conſiderations, that is, from the efficacy of a good dinner in promoting human happineſs, I have been induced to think that our markets are more ſtrictly *national* bleſſings than has commonly been ſuppoſed; that a time of ſcarcity is a time of miſery, in more reſpects than one, and that improvers of the art of cookery, are to be conſidered in a higher light than we have been wont to allow. We may, indeed, conſider our kitchens as ſchools of morality, and our culinary utenſils as the elements of pineſs. And hence I hope, that as landlords, waiters and cooks, muſt ere now have diſcovered of what importance they are in the world, they will endeavour to heighten their art, and carry it beyond the poſſibility of error or imperfection. As the poet ſays,

Beauty from order ſprings; the judging eye
Will tell you if one ſingle plate's awry;
The cook muſt ſtill regard the preſent time,
T' omit what's juſt in ſeaſon is a crime.

We are, therefore, under great obligations to thoſe learned perſons, who have conſidered the labours of the kitchen, as not unworthy to be illuſtrated by the pen, and have preſented the world with large octavos of receipts and directions, which, duly followed, cannot fail to diffuſe happineſs around our tables. Theſe publications, I underſtand, have a very great ſale, and I don't wonder at it. The wonder would be if *rational* beings ſhould ever prove inattentive to what makes them happy. The queſtion of *dreſſing* from *books* has been well adjuſted by the poet I have juſt quoted, who ſays,

'Tis a ſage queſtion, if the art of cooks
Is lod'g'd by nature, or attain'd by books;
That man will never frame a noble treat
Whoſe whole dependence lies on ſome receipt.
Then by pure nature ev'ry thing is ſpoil'd,
She knows no more than ſtew'd, bak'd, roaſt and boil'd.
When *art and nature join*, th' effect will be
Some nice ragoo, or charming fricaſee.

It being then an eſtabliſhed point, that our dependence upon a good dinner is great and momentous, I hope it will follow that we improve this fact, in a more enlarged way than has

yet

yet been done, and that perſons intending to quarrel, diſpute, or perhaps fight with one another, will firſt be adviſed to dine together, and if, after that, their paſſions ſtill rankle, I ſhould be much diſpoſed to put them under the care of ſome of the faculty Were I to ſee a man the ſame kind of creature after as before dinner, I ſhould not heſitate to ſuppoſe that his appetite was bad, and that he ought to take a courſe of ſtomachic medicines. This is a hint I hope too valuable to be loſt, for I am perſuaded that the cauſe of many ſerious and fatal diſputes is, that men do not *digeſt* their differences or their dinners, and that nothing is ſo likely to bring a quarrel to a duel, as purſuing the ſubject upon an empty ſtomach. And what very much confirms my notion is, the well-known fact, that almoſt all duels of the fatal kind have been fought *early in the morning!*

I am not certain, likewiſe, whether, if a dinner was introduced into a great aſſembly, it might not prevent much aſperity of *debate*, and bring about unanimity of parties, for they would then have at leaſt one ſubject which might be diſcuſſed *nem. con.* but this I leave to their ſuperior judgment,

And am, Mr Editor, yours,

ŒSOPHAGUS.

ORIGINAL LETTERS.

Letter of Kien Long, Emperor of China, to the Stadtholder of Holland, Prince of Orange and Naſſau, and to the Burgo-maſters.

"I HAVE received from heaven authority over my kingdom; I have reigned ſixty years, ſo that the four quarters of land and ſea belonging to this empire have enjoyed every where the bleſſings of peace; and neighbouring nations, profiting by our example, have advanced in civilization. I look upon my kingdom, and the kingdoms of other ſovereigns, as forming one large family; I conſider rulers and people as forming one perſon; I think every man, whether of my own kingdom or of any other, as worthy of my notice; neither is there any place, let it be ever ſo remote, where I do not wiſh the effects of my beneficence to penetrate. Strangers from every country have come to congratulate me: ſome in chariots, and others in ſhips. I truly govern my kingdoms with equity, and am pleaſed with the homage of thoſe who come to admire my wiſdom. I deſire greatly to rejoice alſo with all foreign kingdoms in that proſperity, which is granted us from heaven; and think *that* among my firſt duties.

"I commend your nation, which, although ſeparated from mine by ſo great an interval of ſea, has nevertheleſs ſent letters of congratulation to me, and brought alſo conciliatory preſents. After having examined the letters, I perceive nothing either in the words, or in the ſpirit that dictated them, that militates againſt the higheſt veneration for my character; from which I infer, that the principles of my government are juſt, and meet with your approbation.

"And, truly, this is not without juſt cauſe; for during the time in which you have carried on trade at Canton (now many years) our government has behaved honourably to all foreign nations; of all theſe not one can be found that has not received tokens of my regard and protection. In proof of which I might mention the Portugueſe, the Italians, the Engliſh, and people of other nations, who are full of attachment to me, who are approved of by me, and who have brought me many valuable tokens of their eſteem. In a word, I treat all alike, without any partiality; and although that which is offered to me may be of little value, it is my cuſtom to make a liberal return; which diſpoſition of mine, no doubt, you are ſufficiently acquainted with.

"So

"So far as concerns his Excellency, the ambaſſador, who has arrived in my dominions, I perceive he is not ſent nominally by your government; but that the company to which he belongs, poſſeſs the power to authorize him to preſent me with a ſimilar proof of good will and eſteem, as you yourſelves would wiſh to do; and, that having the commands of the Stadtholder to obſerve the proſperity of my kingdom, and inform him thereof, they have felt themſelves inclined to felicitate me on the arrival of the ſixtieth year of my reign: and becauſe the company is far removed from the ſeat of government, and cannot eaſily learn the ſentiments of their rulers, they are juſtified, therefore, in preſuming on the diſpoſition of their ſovereign, and thus, in his name, congratulating me. For I do not doubt, but the ſame good will and affection which exiſt in them towards me, exiſt alſo in your breaſts; and, therefore, I treat their ambaſſador, as if he had been immediately ſent from the king.

"I wiſh alſo you ſhould know, that in the ambaſſador, charged with your letters patent and preſents, I have obſerved not leſs dignity than ſincerity in his actions.

"I have ordered my nobles to admit him into my audience; I have entertained him with various amuſements, and permitted him to ſee all places, not excepting my own ſplendid palaces in the gardens of Zerenming-yuen; I have made him experience the effects of my benevolence, ſince we both mutually rejoice in the peace of this empire; and I have beſide made valuable preſents, not only to your ambaſſador, but to his attendants, the interpreters, the ſoldiers and ſervants: to thoſe I have given many things, as will appear from the following catalogue, beyond my uſual cuſtom.

"On the return of the ambaſſador to his own country, I gave orders that he ſhould preſent ſilks and other precious things to the Stadtholder, to which I added ſeveral other pieces of ſilk, together with many antique vaſes and utenſils.

"May the king receive my preſents, as from one who wiſhes him proſperity and happineſs; may he govern his people with wiſdom, and preſerve an eternal remembrance of my favours. A king ſhould give himſelf entirely to the concerns of his kingdom; and to that conduct I earneſtly recommend him."

Given in the ſixtieth year of the reign of Kien-Long, and on the 24th day of the firſt moon.

Letter of the late Dr Goldſmith.

"I HAVE thought it adviſeable, my dear young pupil, to adopt this method of giving my thoughts to you on ſome ſubjects which I find myſelf not well diſpoſed to ſpeak of in your preſence. The reaſon of this you will yourſelf perceive in the courſe of reading this letter. It is diſagreeable to moſt men, and particularly ſo to me, to ſay any thing which has the appearance of a diſagreeable truth; and as what I have now to ſay to you is entirely reſpecting yourſelf, it is highly probable, that in ſome reſpect or other your views of things and mine may conſiderably differ.

"In the various ſubjects of knowledge which I have had the pleaſure of ſeeing you ſtudy under my care, as well as thoſe which you have acquired under the various teachers who have hitherto much inſtructed you, the moſt material branch of information which it imports a human being to know, has been entirely overlooked, I mean the knowledge of yourſelf. There are indeed very few perſons who poſſeſs at once the capability and the diſpoſition to give you this inſtruction. Your parents, who alone are perhaps ſufficiently acquainted with you for the purpoſe, are uſually diſqualified for the taſk, by the very

very affection and partiality which would prompt them to undertake it. Your maſters, who probably labour under no ſuch prejudices, have ſeldom either ſufficient opportunities of knowing your character, or are ſo much intereſted in your welfare, as to undertake an employment ſo unpleaſant and laborious. You are as yet too young and inexperienced to perform this important office for yourſelf, or indeed to be ſenſible of its very great conſequence to your happineſs. The ardent hopes and the extreme vanity, natural to early youth, blind you at once to every thing within, and every thing without, and make you ſee both yourſelf and the world in falſe colours. This illuſion, it is true will gradually wear away as your reaſon matures and your experience increaſes; but the queſtion is, what is to be done in the mean time? Evidently there is no plan for you to adopt, but to make uſe of the reaſon and experience of thoſe who are qualified to direct you.

"Of this however I can aſſure you, both from my own experience and from the opinions of all thoſe whoſe opinions deſerve to be valued, that if you aim at any ſort of eminence or reſpectability in the eyes of the world, or in thoſe of your friends; if you have any ambition to be diſtinguiſhed in your future career, for your virtues, or talents, or accompliſhments, this ſelf-knowledge of which I am ſpeaking, is above all things requiſite. For how is your moral character to be improved, unleſs you know what are the virtues and vices which your natural diſpoſition is calculated to foſter, and what are the paſſions which are moſt apt to govern you? How are you to attain eminence in any talent or purſuit, unleſs you know in what particular way your powers of mind beſt capacitate you for excelling? It is therefore my intention, in this letter, to offer you a few hints on this moſt important ſubject.

"When you come to look abroad into the world, and to ſtudy the different characters of men, you will find that the happineſs of any individual depends not, as you would ſuppoſe, on the advantages of fortune or ſituation, but principally on the regulation of his own mind. If you are able to ſecure tranquillity within, you will not be much annoyed by any diſturbance without. The great art of doing this, conſiſts in the proper government of the paſſions. In taking care that no propenſity is ſuffered to acquire ſo much power over your mind as to be the cauſe of immoderate uneaſineſs either to yourſelf or others. I inſiſt particularly on this point, my dear young friend, becauſe, if I am not greatly deceived, you are yourſelf very much diſpoſed by nature to two paſſions, the moſt tormenting to the poſſeſſor, and the moſt offenſive to others of any which afflict the human race; I mean pride and anger. Indeed, thoſe two diſpoſitions ſeem to be naturally connected with each other; for you have probably remarked, that moſt proud men are addicted to anger, and that moſt paſſionate men are alſo proud. Be this as it may, I can confidently aſſure you, that if an attempt is not made to ſubdue thoſe uneaſy propenſities now, when your temper is flexible, and your mind eaſy of impreſſion, they will moſt infallibly prove the bane and torment of your whole life. They will not only deſtroy all poſſibility of your enjoying any happineſs yourſelf, but they will produce the ſame effect on thoſe about you; and by that means you will deprive yourſelf both of the reſpect of others, and the approbation of your own heart; the only two ſources from which can be derived any ſubſtantial comfort or real enjoyment.

"It is moreover a certain principle in morals, that all the bad paſſions, but eſpecially thoſe of which we are ſpeaking, defeat, in all caſes, their

their own purpoſes; a poſition, which appears quite evident on the ſlighteſt examination. For what is the object which the proud man has conſtantly in view? Is it not to gain diſtinction, and reſpect and conſideration among mankind? Now it is unfortunately the nature of pride to aim at this diſtinction, not by ſtriving to acquire ſuch virtues and talents as would really intitle him to it, but by labouring to exalt himſelf above his equals by little and degrading methods; by endeavouring, for example, to outvie them in dreſs, or ſhew, or expence, or by affecting to look down with haughty ſupercilioufneſs on ſuch as are inferior to himſelf, only by ſome accidental advantages, for which he is no way indebted to his own merit. The conſequence of this is, that all mankind declare war againſt him; his inferiors, whom he affects to deſpiſe, will hate him, and conſequently will exert themſelves to injure and depreſs him; and his ſuperiors, whom he attempts to imitate, will ridicule his abſurd and unavailing efforts to invade what they conſider as their own peculiar province.

"If it may with truth be ſaid that a proud man defeats his own purpoſes; the ſame may, with equal certainty, be affirmed of a man who gives way to violence of temper. His angry invectives, his illiberal abuſe, and his inſulting language, produce very little effect on thoſe who hear him, and who perhaps only ſmile at his infirmities; but who can deſcribe the intolerable pangs of vexation, rage, and remorſe, by which the heart of a paſſionate man is ſucceſſively ravaged? Alas, it is himſelf alone, in whom the ſtorm is pent up, who is torn by its violence, and not thoſe againſt whom its fury is meant to be directed.

"You will, I dare ſay, readily agree to the truth of all this; but you will perhaps be at a loſs to conceive what can be my reaſons for applying it to you. My principal reaſons for thinking you ſubject to theſe unhappy failings, are very cogent; but they are of ſuch a nature, that it is peculiarly painful for me to ſtate them. In a word then, I have ſeen thoſe hateful propenſities govern you with ſuch irreſiſtible power, that they have overcome the ſtrongeſt and moſt natural principle which can be ſuppoſed to reign in the heart of a young perſon; I mean the duty and affection you owe your parents. Surely it could be no common failing, no light or trivial fault of temper, that could be ſufficient to counteract the warmeſt feelings and ſtrongeſt duties of a young mind? duties and feelings ſo natural and ſo indiſpenſable, that we juſtly conclude a young perſon who appears to be devoid of them, can ſcarcely poſſeſs any other valuable quality. From ſuch grounds, then, can you think me harſh or uncharitable, if I have formed ſuch concluſions?

"I have been urged to what I have ſaid by an earneſt wiſh for the improvement of your character, and particularly for the amelioration of your heart. In a future letter I ſhall purſue the ſubject, by endeavouring to give you ſome rules reſpecting the government and improvement of the underſtanding. I hope and believe that your conduct will be ſuch as to render any future admonitions on the ſubjects of this letter entirely unneceſſary. I am, my dear pupil,

Yours, affectionately, &c.

AN ACCOUNT OF A SINGULAR CUSTOM, COMMON IN MANY PARTS OF HINDOSTAN.

AT the pagoda of Rajapethah, near Madras, was yeſterday (Sunday, July 6th, 1798,) performed in honour of Chadiyatta, a curious Hindoo ceremony:—An upright poſt, about forty feet high, was pitched in the ground,

ground, on which a croſs pole of upwards of twice that length turned by a pivot; long ropes were faſtened to each end of this pole, and at one of them a kind of canopy, adorned with feſtoons and bunches of flowers: where this canopied end came to the ground, a ſmall ſcaffold of eight or nine feet was raiſed: beſides the circular motion on the pivot, the croſs-pole had a perpendicular one; ſo that each end might be elevated at pleaſure by means of the affixed ropes.

Around this apparatus ſtood innumerable crowds of Indians of all deſcriptions, in anxious expectation of the hero who was to ſignalize himſelf in honour of the Goddeſs. In the mean time, the Tari, the Nagaſam, the Dammay, the Tom tom, and all the et cætera of Brahmin muſic, kept up a continual clangor. At every four or five minutes too, a volley of the noiſy kind of fire-works was diſcharged; and the family of the man about to be ſuſpended, highly bedaubed with Turmarique, and loaded with flowers, were led in proceſſion round the machine, in the midſt of the reiterated cries of the multitude. On one ſide was exalted the throne of the Goddeſs; on which ſhe ſat, nearly hidden by flowers, and ſurrounded by officiating Bramins.

At laſt the devotee appeared. The tumult of the inſtruments, the fire-works, and the ſpectators, redoubled. In the fleſhy part of the back, near the bone, and about four inches from the ſhoulders, were inſixed two apparently ſilver hooks; ſuch, in form and ſize, as are on large ſteel-yards: to them were faſtened thick yellow ſtrings. For fixing theſe in the back, wounds muſt have been made at leaſt an inch long, and four in number; for their points came quite through. He aſcended the ſcaffold; a ſmall Tom-tom was put into his hand; the hook ſtrings were tied round the end of the pole, under the canopy; and his great toes placed in a kind of ſlings, at a convenient diſtance; ſo that he lay in the air, as a man ſwimming on the water. When he mounted the ſcaffold, he ſeemed to tremble; and when raiſed into the air, as he immediately was on every thing being adjuſted under the canopy, he for ſome time kept faſt hold on the long rope proceeding from the end of the pole. But this he ſoon quitted, and amuſed himſelf in beating his Tom-tom, and ſcattering the flowers which covered him among the people below. At firſt my blood ran cold, and I could not ſee without horror and indignation the mangled fleſh and haggard looks of this victim of ſuperſtition: but when he was arrived at the utmoſt height of his aerial elevation, and had quitted the rope, he ſeemed ſo much at his eaſe, that I could not forbear joining in the general acclamation, and in ſome degree enjoying the ſport. He might be raiſed, perhaps, fifty or ſixty feet from the ground.

The bunches and feſtoons he caſt down cauſed a general ſcramble among the crowd; each member of which ſeemed ardently deſirous to acquire ſome portion, however trifling, of this ſacred relic. All this while, the pole was impelled round the pivot it was moved on by a number of people at the depreſſed end of it. At laſt, after having been in the air ten minutes or a quarter of an hour, he withdrew his toes entirely out of the ſlings, and hung ſuſpended *only* by the fleſh and muſcles of his back. This continued about four minutes more; at the end of which time he tore down and diſtributed the remainder of his flowers, when he was let down amidſt the again repeated triumphant applauſe of the whole aſſembly, the firing of rockets, &c. and the noiſe of the muſic: ſo that the whole of his ſuſpenſion was finiſhed in fifteen or twenty minutes. It is

worthy of remark, that each time he came, during his airy rounds, to the quarter where the throne of the Goddeſs was placed, he reverentially joined his hands and touched his forehead, and ceaſed, till he was paſſed, pulling the flowers. Unluckily, notwithſtanding all my endeavours, I could not procure any of theſe; but could, however, diſtinguiſh that they were of three or four different ſpecies; among which, the Mallagi, a ſmall white flower, ſtrongly ſcented, predominated. This latter is uſed in all the Brahmin ceremonies, worn by the dancing girls, diſtributed at weddings, and held in general eſteem on account of its ſuppoſed ſanctity. This ſtrange ceremony, which by the natives is called Chadil, has its origin in the following circumſtances, and is certainly a ſevere yoke impoſed on them by their religious poets:—Chadiyatta was born of mortal parents, of the Sooder caſt, and of that tribe whoſe excluſive employment it is to fiſh in rivers and lakes: The God Iſwaran or Seeva fell in love with her; and, notwithſtanding the lowneſs of her origin, married and carried her to heaven. For ſome offence, however, ſhe was, after a while, baniſhed from thence, but ſoon again reſtored; and it is in commemoration of this reconciliation, or to expiate the fault which occaſioned her baniſhment, that the people of her (or the Pully) caſt undergo this and many other penances: ſo that it is no fortunate thing to have a Goddeſs in the family. This expiation is annually repeated (though, I believe, not in all places at the ſame ſeaſon); for the Goddeſs is ſuppoſed to deſcend at the anniverſary, and not to re-aſcend till all the due atonements, ceremonies, interceſſions, &c. are juſtly performed by her relatives.

ASPECT OF THE TIMES.

From Dr W. L. Brown's 'Appendix to the New Edition of Leland's View of Deiſtical Writers.'

WITHIN the ſpace of a few years, wonderful, and almoſt incredible changes have happened on the great theatre of the world. The American revolution was not only extremely important in itſelf, but has been productive of a ſeries of aſtoniſhing events. The principle, on which the American republic claimed and eſtabliſhed its independence, attracted univerſal attention. The foundations of civil ſociety, the natural rights of man, and the reciprocal duties of rulers and ſubjects, were univerſally diſcuſſed; and, in the courſe of the diſcuſſion, views and opinions with reſpect to the political and civil condition of mankind, to which the generality of men had, hitherto, been ſtrangers, were ſpread as far as the influence of the preſs could extend. Unhappily, the greater parts of European governments had equally departed from the principles of the religion they profeſſed, and from theſe eternal maxims of juſtice by which every government ought to be directed, and ſubſtituted, in the place of theſe, the dictates of the moſt crooked and inſidious policy. Corruption, beginning at the head, had diffuſed its baneful contagion through the whole ſocial body. Although mankind were almoſt every where panting for liberty, they were little qualified for its enjoyment, which can be obtained only in conjunction with that morality which directs freedom to its proper ends, and prevents it from degenerating into the groſſeſt licentiouſneſs.

One of the moſt corrupt courts of Europe was certainly that of France. Its unvarying aim had, for ages, been its own aggrandiſement; and the means which it had employed for this purpoſe, were either craft, or violence, as the one or the other appeared moſt conducive to the immedi-

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ate object in view. Actuated ſolely by that policy which dictated the diminutions of a rival's power, this court, as regardleſs of the dangers which threatened itſelf, as it was indifferent to the principles of liberty, embraced the American cauſe, and powerfully contributed to its triumph.

The ſame policy led to foment diſcontents and diſſentions in other countries, and to undertake the defence of ſchemes of government, the reverſe of thoſe by which its own adminiſtration was conducted. How ſhorted ſighted, how weak is the deepeſt policy of man! What in the view of thoſe, who purſued theſe plans appeared the moſt penetrating ſagacity, and the moſt comprehenſive wiſdom, turned out, to them, the moſt egregious folly, and the moſt fatal deluſion.

The arts that were then practiſed, the pretexts that were employed, the writings that were diſſeminated, the armies and the fleets that were ſent out to accompliſh the deſigns of the French government—all contributed to diffuſe through France, political opinions and a national ſpirit unknown to it before. That flagrant abuſes in almoſt every department of the ſtate; ſcandalous dilapidations of public treaſure; the conſequent derangement of finances, the want of regular reſources to ſupply the deficiency; the impotence of royal power to procure extraordinary ones without ſome appearance of national conſent; the impious attacks not only againſt every form and deſcription of revealed, but even the fundamental principles of natural religion, contained in the moſt admired and popular writings; and the libertiniſm and diſſoluteneſs of manners univerſally diffuſed, but particularly prevalent in the higher claſſes of ſociety—that all theſe circumſtances had prepared the French nation for ſome portentous and wide-extending revolution cannot be called in queſtion.

Its beginnings, indeed, wore a ſmiling appearance, and afforded a pleaſing proſpect of public felicity. Thoſe who wiſhed well to mankind, and ardently deſired more equitable and beneficent plans of public adminiſtration to be univerſally adopted, eaſily cheriſhed the delightful expectation of a happier era beginning to dawn upon Europe.

But, in this expectation, it is evident that they rather indulged the repreſentations of benevolent fancy, than conſulted the calm dictates of rational anticipation. It could not reaſonably be ſuppoſed that a nation of ſuch levity of character, of ſuch ardent and impetuous paſſions, and ſo corrupted by luxury, and ſtill more by irreligion, would, when ſet free from thoſe reſtraints to which it had ſo long been ſubject, contain itſelf within any bounds of moderation. Scenes of tremendous deſolation ought, at all events, to have been expected, It was impoſſible, alſo in the nature of things, that the violent agitations of France ſhould not, in ſome way or other, affect every neighbouring ſtate, and ultimately extend their convulſive influence to the remoteſt parts of Europe.

The jacobin faction, the moſt deſperate and profligate mentioned in hiſtory, ſpeedily ſpread, through their own country, confuſion, anarchy, and every ſpecies of unbridled licentiouſneſs, trampled under foot every feeling of ſentiment and humanity, confounded every moral diſtinction, and inveſted, with the badges of honour, the moſt deteſtable forms of criminality. Theſe men had ſeen, in the writings of pretended philoſophers, the groſſeſt corruptions of Chriſtianity expoſed as the genuine doctrines of our holy faith. They had ſeen the virulent perſecutions, which theſe corruptions, in ſubſervience to the moſt iniquitous paſſions of the human breaſt had occaſioned, imputed to a religion which breathes univerſal charity and kindneſs, and prepares man for heaven by rendering him beneficent and virtuous.

tuous on earth. They had ſeen its pureſt precepts, which ſoar far above morality merely human, repreſented as impracticable or pernicious. They had learned to conſider every real Chriſtian as a fanatic, and to claſs every ſpecies of religion with ſuperſtition and hypocriſy. Rejecting Chriſtianity, therefore, as a fable, they reſolved to extirpate it wherever their power might extend, and with a ſpirit of freedom diſdaining ſubmiſſion even to infinite wiſdom, goodneſs and power to dethrone, in idea, the ſovereign of the univerſe. Pretending to wage war with fanaticiſm, they exhibited it in a form and ſhape unknown and unconceived before—the fanaticiſm of atheiſm, the burning zeal of impiety, the ſublimated ſpirit of political intolerance.

Now, for the firſt time, was diſplayed to the world, the ſpectacle of a legiſlative body renouncing all regard for religion, and openly proclaiming, as the perfection of wiſdom, the diſbelief of a deity and of a future ſtate. The ſtrongeſt ties, by which mankind are bound, and the moſt powerful motives, by which they are influenced to the practice of virtue, were, under the ſanction of avowed principle, broken and deſtroyed, and what reaſon itſelf had eſtabliſhed on the ſtrongeſt foundation, was conſidered as the reverie of diſordered fancy.

So nearly, however, are extremes allied, that, in the midſt of this flagrant renunciation of all religious principles, the open profeſſion and practice of idolatry and polytheiſm were adopted. Thoſe who diſclaimed the religion of Chriſt, and the worſhip of God, erected altars to the imaginary goddeſs of liberty, and to the deified perſonification of their country, and attempted to revive the abſurd, religious ceremonies of Greece and Rome. So that, among all the other extravagancies of the preſent age, was exhibited the inconſiſtent union of atheiſm and ſuperſtition, while each of theſe diſcordant principles counteracted the effect of the other; atheiſm preventing ſuperſtition from affording any check to the crimes of its profeſſors, and ſuperſtition inſpiring that fanatical rage which atheiſm pretends to prevent—an appearance of deluſion and frenzy hitherto unexampled in the annals of the world.

As this frantic ſpirit endeavoured to propagate its tenets through every ſurrounding nation, and to overturn every eſtabliſhed form of government, it was not ſurpriſing that princes and ſtates ſhould combine to reſiſt it; and if ever there was a time when mutual intereſt dictated mutual and cordial co-operation, and the abandonment of all narrow, partial and ſelfiſh views, it was ſurely that in which the coalition was formed againſt the torrent of the French anarchial ſyſtem. But the reverſe of all this took place. The continental powers were united by no principle of common welfare: They were actuated by no regard for the happineſs either of their own ſubjects or of mankind in general. That old ſyſtem of crooked and narrow politics by which the cabinets of Europe have been too much influenced for two hundred years backwards, dictated the meaſures, and directed the whole of their proceedings. Each fought only ſome little aquiſition of territory, of treaſure, or of power. Their ſubſequent conduct juſtified the imputations of their enemies; and while they profeſſed to ſtop the torrent of impiety, anarchy, and cruelty, they contributed to its more extenſive and rapid courſe. What has been the reſult? The feeble and ill-concerted oppoſition afforded, to a power the moſt ſurpriſing and dangerous that has appeared in the world ſince the times of ancient Rome, all the advantage which attends the ſplendour and the glory of victory; and, while their weakneſs has removed every reſtraint of fear, they have loſt that reſpect which would, at leaſt, have been at

to principle. The fiends of war have been let loose, to ravage and desolate Europe; poverty, distress, bloodshed, and almost every species of misery, have been the sole compensation of such immediate calamities. Wherever we turn our view, nothing is presented but the most melancholy subjects of contemplation.

We behold the strongest bonds of society burst asunder over a considerable part of Christendom; the tenderest charities of nature trodden under foot; impiety, blasphemy, and atheism stalking on the earth with daring front, and bidding defiance to the thunder of the Almighty. We behold a nation, esteemed one of the most civilized in Europe, stained with deeds of barbarity by which the most ferocious savages would have deemed themselves disgraced. We behold the wild and impetuous leaders of that nation, not content with having deluged its fields and its streets with the blood of thousands of victims sacrificed to fear, to revenge, or to wanton cruelty; with having depopulated and laid waste its cities, dissolved all social order, and extinguished in the breasts of their countrymen, all true sense of justice, humanity, and religion, successfully employed in spreading the same confusion and misery through every other nation to which they can extend their power. We behold some of the principal sovereigns of Europe, now trembling before the gigantic French republic, eagerly courting reconciliation with her, joining in the bands of amity with those whom they had proclaimed the most attrocious malefactors, and, in order to compensate the losses they have sustained in the contest in which they have been engaged, adopting those very schemes of invasion of their weaker neighbours, which in her they had so strongly reprobated. We behold two powerful states (Poland and Venice) deprived of political existence, and divided by the hand of rapine, and others stripped of half their possessions. We see our own country almost exhausted by a bloody, expensive, and exasperated war; and although, by the divine undeserved mercy, we have, hitherto, been preserved from that confusion, disorder and ruin, which have overwhelmed other nations, we are uncertain how long this advantage may be continued.

Never before did modern Europe experience a more dreadful concussion—a concussion already productive of the greatest changes, and announcing still greater, and more numerous. For the fermentation, which every where agitates the mind of men, can not soon subside. Passions, so strongly, and so generally excited, must, like water which has burst every bank and mound that contained it, spread their inundations far and wide, till they, at last, find their own level. Notwithstanding the general desire, and acknowledged necessity of peace to all Europe, there is little probability of its complete restoration, and still less of its continuance for a series of succeeding years. From this country the insolence and injustice of its enemies have removed all hopes of pacification for the present. The spirit of conquest, and of universal dominion, appears evidently to have seized the present rulers of France. Peace is contrary both to their immediate possession of power, and to their exorbitant schemes of aggrandizement, nor till these are completely and irretrievably frustrated, are there any hopes of a general and permanent pacification.

The last general ferment which Christendom experienced, was that which was occasioned by the Reformation. Wars and rumours of wars did not subside for nearly a century after they commenced. It is true that all these commotions and calamities were ultimately productive of the greatest good both to the civil and religious interests of mankind. But, while human corruption is so deeply

deeply rooted, and ſo widely ſpread, it is hardly poſſible that correction, amendment, and final peace, can be obtained without great and laſting ſeverities. The ferment, which now exiſts, is, indeed, of a complexion very different from that juſt ſtated. It is merely political, and ſtrongly irreligious. But it is a great and extenſive ferment, and muſt produce effects adequate to its force and diffuſion.

Now, if theſe are not "the judgments of God on the earth," when did they ever exiſt? When has his arm ever been more conſpicuouſly diſplayed, from the clouds, wielding the threatening ſword, to impreſs, on the inhabitants of the world, the long forgotten leſſons of righteouſneſs? Theſe judgments are not to be confounded with the more doubtful ones of hurricanes, earthquakes, tempeſts, or inundations, which though adapted to rouſe men to reflection, and to a ſerious view of their moral ſtate, ſpring not immediately from human depravity, and bear not along with them the diſtinct impreſſions of moral evil. The judgments, which now afflict mankind, can all be traced back to the moſt polluted ſources of corruption, and originating in the profligacy of the higher ſtations of ſociety, have diffuſed their contagion through the whole ſocial maſs. "From the ſole of the foot, even to the head, there is no ſoundneſs in it; but wounds and bruiſes and putrifying ſores." "It is of the Lord's mercies that we are not conſumed, becauſe his compaſſions fail not."

The love of money, "the root of all evil," is univerſally predominant. The commercial ſpirit, laudable, indeed, and ſalutary, when reſtrained within due bounds; and regulated by the principles of piety and morality, now appears to abſorb every other conſideration, to preſcribe the moſt extenſive gain as the meaſure of public intereſt, to extinguiſh the genuine love of country, and to eradicate all ſenſe of national honour. The maſculine, elevated, and wiſe ſentiments of our anceſtors ſeem to have given place to a ſordid deſire, and an ignoble veneration of wealth, to an intemperate love of pleaſure, to waſting luxury, and to all the frivolity and effeminacy of a luxurious and opulent age. Diſſipation and profanity are no longer confined to the higher ranks where they long reſided, but have deſcended to the lower, aggravated by all that coarſeneſs of exceſs which always accompanies a mean education. Among them, the doctrines of infidelity have alſo been diſſeminated with a facility of reception which would, a few years ago, have been accounted impoſſible. Never before were thoſe conjugal ties, the ſanctity of which is the ſureſt pledge of purity of morals and of public happineſs, ſo wantonly broken; never was domeſtic felicity ſo frequently ſtabbed, and all that people owe to their children and families, ſo ſhamefully neglected or forgotten; never was there a period in which religion was ſo little ſtudied, in theory, and ſo little manifeſted in practice; inſomuch, that it appears to be the only ſubject which ought not to occupy people's thoughts, and the only principle that ought not to influence their conduct. Even when any regard for religion remains, how often does it degenerate either into bigotry or fanaticiſm, or into mere external obſervance, and a reſpect for public inſtitutions? The ſmall influence of genuine piety is evident from this circumſtance, that it very frequently happens, that perſons, who are uncommonly zealous for a particular ſyſtem of religious opinions, are by no means affected by the attempts of deiſts or atheiſts to ſap the foundations of all religion both natural and revealed, and even applaud their pernicious doctrines, merely becauſe they agree with them on certain political points. Can this be called any thing elſe but

an obſtinate ſectarian ſpirit, devoid of all pure religious principle? Public ſpirit is generally either a blind attachment to party, or an invincible devotion to opinions adverſe to rational freedom, and good government, either by their tendency to deſpotic oppreſſion, or to democratical anarchy. Thanks be to God! for the remnant of virtue that is ſtill preſerved among us, in the humanity and charity which characterize our nation, and in ſome meaſure redeem the manifold turpitude by which it is diſgraced.

GENERA.

EASY METHOD OF CLEANING AND BLEACHING COPPER PLATE IMPRESSIONS OR PRINTS.

From Mr Nicholſon's Journal of Natural Philoſophy, Chemiſtry, &c.

SINCE the happy invention of engraving in copper, which no doubt owes its origin to the revival of the art of chaſing and ornamenting plate, collectors have availed themſelves of this means to accumulate and preſerve copies of the moſt valuable pictures and drawings. This object of reſearch becomes every day more prevalent, and prints of the early and moſt celebrated maſters are now ſought for with the utmoſt avidity.

Ancient prints are valuable, not only for their own intrinſic merits, but as monuments of the hiſtory of the art. But their ſcarcity renders them ſtill more valuable. Moſt of thoſe which are ſtill extant are defaced by negligence, during the time of their remaining ſuſpended againſt walls, expoſed to ſmoke, vapour, and the excrements of inſects. Collectors of prints have not, however, ſhewn the ſame partiality as antiquarians for the patina; but on the contrary they have ſought and practiſed a method of clearing prints from theſe impurities.

This method conſiſts in ſimple waſhing with clear water, or a ley made of the aſhes of vine ſtalks or reeds, and laſtly by a long expoſure to the dew. Aqua fortis is alſo uſed for the ſame purpoſe, but with a degree of riſque at leaſt equal to its advantages. The ley diſſolves not only the impurities but likewiſe the oil of the printing ink, and either diſcharges it totally, or leaves a cloudy appearance. The aqua fortis acts on the vegetable fibre, of which the paper itſelf is compoſed, and produces a dark colour, which cannot be removed by means of this liquid, but by an action which would conſiderably injure the paper itſelf.

The diſcovery of Prieſtley, of the fluid erroneouſly named by him, but ſince known by the name of oxygen; and the information we have obtained from Scheele, of the effects of its combination with muriatic acid, have led Berthollet to the uſeful application of its properties to the act of bleaching cloths, Chaptal to that of bleaching prints and books, and Globert to the art of painting. But the method of making this preparation is too inconvenient for a mere amateur and collector of prints, and the oxygenated muriatic acid is not yet to be purchaſed ready prepared in Italy. It may not, therefore, be unacceptable to deſcribe an eaſy method of effecting this purpoſe without the difficulties of chemical proceſſes, and within the ability of any perſon to perform.

It is known that oxygen is abundantly contained in the combinations called metallic calces, though in a ſtate of inactivity; and it is equally well aſcertained, that theſe ſubſtances have a very ſtrong attraction for it. On the other hand it is a fact, that ſome of the metallic calces of very moderate prices are capable of eaſily yielding the whole or the greateſt proportion of this conſtituent part. Manganeſe is not very well adapted for this purpoſe; but minium is much

better. Nothing more is required to be done, but to provide a certain quantity of the common muriatic acid, for example, three ounces, in a glaſs bottle, with a ground ſtopper, of ſuch a capacity that it may be only half full. Half an ounce of minium muſt then be added; immediately after which the ſtopper is to be put in, and the bottle ſet in a cold and dark place. The heat, which ſoon becomes perceptible, ſhews the beginning of the new combination. The minium abandons the greateſt part of its oxygen with which the fluid remains impregnated, at the ſame time that it acquires a fine golden yellow, and emits the deteſtable ſmell of oxygenated muriatic acid. It contains a ſmall portion of muriate of lead; but this is not at all noxious in the ſubſequent proceſs. It is alſo neceſſary to be obſerved, that the bottle muſt be ſtrong, and the ſtopper not too firmly fixed, otherwiſe the active claſtic vapour might burſt it. The method of uſing this prepared acid is as follows:

Provide a ſufficiently large plate of glaſs, upon which one or more prints may be ſeparately ſpread out. Near the edges let there be raiſed a border of ſoft white wax half an inch high, adhering well to the glaſs, and flat at top. In this kind of trough the print is to be placed in a bath of freſh urine, or water containing a ſmall quantity of ox gall, and kept in this ſituation for three or four hours. The fluid is then to be decanted off, and pure warm water poured on, which muſt be changed every three or four hours until it paſſes limpid and clear. The impurities are ſometimes of a reſinous nature, and reſiſt the action of pure water. When this is the caſe the waſhed print muſt be left to dry, and alcohol is then to be poured on and left for a time. After the print is thus cleaned, and all the moiſture drained off, the muriatic acid prepared with minium * is to be poured on in ſufficient quantity to cover the print; immediately after which another plate of glaſs is to be laid in contact with the rim of wax, in order to prevent the inconvenient exhalation of the oxygenated acid. In this ſituation the yelloweſt print will be ſeen to recover its original whiteneſs in a very ſhort time. One or two hours are ſufficient to produce the deſired effect; but the print will receive no injury if it be left in the acid for a whole night. Nothing more is neceſſary to complete the work, than to decant off the remaining acid, and waſh away every trace of acidity by repeated affuſions of pure water. The print being then left to dry (in the ſun if poſſible) will be found white, clear, firm, and in no reſpect damaged either in the texture of the paper or the tone and appearance of the impreſſion.

* As I have not repeated this proceſs, I cannot eſtimate how far the preſence of the lead may weaken the corroſive action of the acid on the paper; but I ſhould be diſpoſed to recommend a previous dilution of the acid with water. Whoever uſes this proceſs will of courſe make himſelf maſter of the proportion of water required to dilute the acid, by making his firſt trials with an old print of no value.

PRESERVATION FROM SHIPWRECK.

SIR,

THE Royal Humane Society has propoſed the following queſtions for the year 1799:—

I. What are the beſt means of preſerving Mariners and others from Shipwreck?

II. What will be the moſt probable means of keeping the Veſſels afloat, ſo as to preſerve the Lives of thoſe who may be in ſuch perilous Situations?

III. The moſt certain Methods of conveying Aſſiſtance from Shore, to Veſſels in Diſtreſs, within a certain Diſtance of Land, and when Boats

dare not venture out to the aid of Shipwrecked Mariners?

I shall beg leave to throw out some hints on this very humane subject.

To prevent this disaster is impossible; but sure I am, if the simple contrivance of the *cork jacket* were universally adopted, multitudes would be saved from drowning. I believe it will be granted, that by far the greatest number of ships are lost on a lee shore. In this case suppose two vessels are stranded, of 300 men each, at equal distances from the land. One of these ships is provided with *cork jackets* in proportion to the number of the people. It is needless to say in which vessel there will be most danger of drowning. Perhaps from the one, fifty, a hundred, or more, may escape by keeping above water, while there is little probability of ten or twenty being saved from the other, if the sea runs high, allowing them to be expert swimmers. What numbers of lives were lost on board the Prince George of 90 guns, in a former war. She took fire in the midst of a fleet, and continued to burn for several hours. Her guns being loaded, went off as the fire reached them, which prevented the ships and boats from approaching her. It is true some hundreds were saved; but it is equally true that some hundreds perished, who might almost to a man have been picked up, had they been furnished with the *cork jacket*. I do not know what are the reasons against introducing this contrivance into the fleet, of why even every merchant ship is not provided in proportion to her compliment of men. I should like to know what consideration can be of equal or superior value to preserving men's lives, when reduced to the dire necessity of being drowned or burned. I hope there is not so little subordination in the navy, that a parcel of *cork jackets* could not be kept under the power of the officers, till they became really necessary. I am convinced that a ship's company knowing they were provided with these, instead of deserting their duty too soon, would rather be stimulated to continue their exertions to the last, from a confidence they would naturally entertain of their personal safety. Let a person suppose himself shipwrecked on a lee shore, the vessel going to pieces, the boat staved, and the land a mile or two distant: let him also suppose his companions furnished with the *jacket*, while he remains at the mercy of the raging element; and then determine who has the best chance for life. The following account was published by a French officer not many years ago.

"Eight or nine years ago, being much struck with an account which I read of the shipwreck of twenty-four persons, who perished so near the shore that their cries could be distinctly heard, an idea immediately occurred to me of endeavouring to discover some means proper for saving the crews of shipwrecked vessels, at least under such circumstances, that is to say, at the distance of forty or fifty fathoms from the shore; for I did not then imagine that it could be done at the distance of two or three hundred, as I afterwards discovered. I perceived at first that the only means to save the crew of a vessel in such a state, would be to establish a rope of communication from the shore to the ship. After examining a number of means, both ancient and modern, I fixed on a bomb or cannon ball (a bomb I think preferable), to which should be fastened the end of the rope, extending afterwards in a zig-zag direction before the mortar or cannon, or suspended on a piece of wood raised several feet.—But as it was necessary to know if the cord would not break by the force of the explosion and the velocity of the motion, I thought it proper to con-

ſult profeſſional men. I wrote to ſome officers of the artillery in garriſon at La Fere, and they almoſt all replied that the rope would infallibly break.

Not ſatisfied with this anſwer, I happily conceived the idea of making the experiments on a ſmall ſcale. I cauſed a piece of the barrel of a muſket to be filed into the form of a ſmall mortar of 18 lines in length internally; and having tied a packthread to a common ball of lead, I made an experiment, which perfectly ſucceeded, as did a great many others which I repeated afterwards, even with the ſtrongeſt charges of powder. I communicated this ſucceſs to thoſe officers of artillery, who replied, that there was a great difference between a quarter of an ounce of powder and four or five pounds employed for a bomb; and, in ſhort, that the rope would break.

Being deſirous to aſcertain what truth there might be in this aſſertion, I repaired to a large iron furnace, where I remained ten days and where I cauſed a mould to be formed for a four inch mortar, and a bullet of the ſame calibre: I had them both caſt, and made an experiment with a rope three or four lines in diameter, and eighteen ounces of powder, which ſucceeded. I then came to Paris, where, after ſtaying eight months, I obtained an order from government to make my experiments on a grand ſcale, even at La Fere, where I had to expect men prejudiced againſt the ſucceſs of my attempts.

When I went thither they perſiſted that they would not ſucceed. I knew, however, what I had to depend upon, as I had already made experiments. In ſhort, I repeated them, and they completely ſucceeded. The firſt day nothing being done in a proper manner, ſome of the experiments failed; but things being arranged better next morning, we repeated them ſeven times without once failing, viz. four times with a mortar of eight inches, and three with one of twelve, augmenting each time the charge of the powder from the weakeſt to the ſtrongeſt. The ſpectators having judged that this number was fully ſufficient to eſtabliſh the truth of the diſcovery, no more were made."

I ſhall now proceed to other means which I have deviſed, not only for ſaving the crews of veſſels, but alſo the greater part of the cargoes, when expoſed to danger near the coaſt.

1ſt, It muſt be remembered that, in ſuch circumſtances, the only thing neceſſary is to get a cord of communication conveyed to the veſſel in danger. It ought to be remembered alſo, that a veſſel is never caſt away or periſhes on the coaſt, but becauſe it is driven thither againſt the will of the Captain, and by the violence of the waves and the wind, which almoſt always blows from the ſea towards the ſhore, without which there would be no danger to be apprehended: conſequently, in theſe circumſtances, the wind comes always from the ſea, either directly or obliquely, and blows towards the ſhore.

A common paper kite, therefore launched from the veſſel and driven by the wind to the ſhore, would be ſufficient to ſave a crew conſiſting of 1500 ſeamen, if ſuch were the number of a ſhip of war. This kite would convey to the ſhore a ſtrong packthread, to the end of which might be affixed a cord, to be drawn on board by means of the ſtring of the kite; and with this cord a rope, or as many as ſhould be neceſſary, might be conveyed to the ſhip. It may readily be conceived that I cannot here enter into any detail concerning various circumſtances relating to the ſubject which it might be neceſſary to mention.

2d. A ſmall baloon, of ſix or ſeven feet in diameter, and raiſed by rarefied air, would be alſo an excellent means for the like purpoſe: but

driven by the wind from the veſſel to the ſhore, it would carry thither a ſtring capable of drawing a cord with which ſeveral ropes might be afterwards conveyed to the veſſel. Had not the diſcovery of Citizen Montgolfier produced any other benefit, it would be entitled on this account to be conſidered as of great importance.

3d. A ſky-rocket, of a large diameter, would be of equal ſervice. It would alſo carry, from the veſſel to the ſhore, a ſtring capable of drawing a rope after it. A friend, whom I have conſulted on this ſubject, told me that he made ſome four inches in diameter, which roſe to a great height; and that, with a ſtring attached to them, they would go to the diſtance of four or five hundred fathoms, which is more than would be neceſſary. They may be kept in a ſtate fit for ſervice two years, if depoſited in a dry place.

Laſtly, A fourth plan for ſaving the crew of a ſhipwrecked veſſel, is that of throwing from the veſſel into the ſea an empty caſk with a cord attached to it. The wind and waves would drive the caſk to the ſhore, and afford the means of eſtabliſhing that rope of communication already mentioned. Each of theſe methods may be improved, but I cannot at preſent enter into any detail.

CURIOUS CORRESPONDENCE BETWEEN COLOURS AND MUSICAL NOTES.

Sir Isaac Newton, in his Optics, ſhews that colours correſpond with the muſical notes in the following manner, viz.

A — Red
B — Orange
C — Yellow
D — Green
E — Blue
F — Indigo
G — Violet.

If to theſe we add the flats and ſharps, according to the preſent ſcale of muſic, we ſhall have all the colours correſponding with the notes upon the ſeveral inſtruments now in uſe, as follows:

1ſt, A — Red
2d, B flat — Red Orange
3d, B natural — Orange
4th, C — Yellow
5th, C ſharp — Yellow Green, more yellow — D flat
6th, D — Green
7th, E flat — Blue Green, more blue — D ſharp
8th, E — Blue
9th, F — Indigo
10th, F ſharp — Purple
11th, G — Violet
12th, G ſharp — Roſe Violet, more violet — A flat.

In all keys where the 3d is minor, the following table is to be uſed.

1. 2d. 3d. 4th. 5th. 6th. 7th.
2. 3. 5. 7. 8. 11.

The next Table is for all keys where the 3d. is major.

1. 2d. 3d. 4th. 5th. 6th. 7th.
2. 4. 5. 7. 9. 11.

Thoſe who are acquainted with the firſt principles of harmony, may, by theſe tables, find any concord to a given colour, and by the numbers which are annexed to them may alſo find the true concord and diſcord in any given key; that is, when any colour is taken as the fundamental, from whence the 3ds, 4ths, 5ths, &c. receive their names.

It is not neceſſary here to conſider keys any farther than as they are diſtinguiſhed by having their 3ds. major or minor; thus a 3d. major to Green is Purple; whereas, a 3d. minor would be Indigo, which it is not eaſy to underſtand, unleſs a perſon has a previous notion of the grounds of muſic.

In all keys where the 3d. is minor, the notes properly belonging to that key may be found thus: place the notes in their proper order, and write the

the intervals between them underneath:

1.	2d.	3d.	4th.	5th.	6th.	7th.
2.	3.	5.	7.	8.	11.	

Suppoſe Green — D is the *fundamental* colour, or key note given, and I would know what colour is a 4th to it; when the third is minor, D in the Table of Colours is marked No 6, and under the 4th in the little Table above, is wrote 5; add 5 to 6—11, which in the Table is G — Violet; and ſo of any other.

But when the Key is major, that is, when it has a major 3d, the ſecond of the firſt two Tables muſt be uſed; thus a third major to B flat, or Red Orange, is found by adding 4 to 2—6 is D—Green.

A 3d minor would have been C ſharp or D flat, which upon the harpſichord or organ are the ſame notes; this is a defect of the inſtrument, and cannot be remedied; but in colours the gradations ought to be taken more exact, which may be done by the next Table, expreſſing the flats and ſharps on every note; thus, D ſharp is blue green, more green; and E flat is blue green, more blue; C ſharp is yellow green, more yellow; D flat is yellow green, more green; and the leſſer 3d to E is A flat, not G ſharp.

The colours, according to the ſcale of muſic, including the major and minor ſemitones.

1ſt, A—Red
2d, A ſharp — Scarlet
3d, B flat — Red Orange
4th, B natural — Orange
5th, B ſharp — Pale Orange, more orange
6th, C flat — Pale Orange, or Pale Gold
7th, C — Yellow
8th, C ſharp — Yellow Green, more yellow
9th, D flat — Yellow Green, more green
10th, D — Green
11th, D ſharp — Blue Green, more green
12th, E flat — Blue Green, more blue
13th, E — Blue
14th, E ſharp — Indigo Blue, more blue
15th, F flat — Indigo Blue, more Indigo
16th, F — Indigo
17th, F ſharp — Purple
18th, G flat — Purple, more violet
19th, G — Violet
20th, G ſharp — Roſe Violet, more violet
21ſt, A flat — Roſe Violet, more red.

AGRICULTURAL REMARKS.

IN a valuable letter from Mr Herbert Marſh to A. Young, Eſq. inſerted in the *Annals of Agriculture*, No 168, an account is given of the methods employed by the peaſants about Leipſic to paſs their ſevere winters without injury. Every farm is furniſhed with an out-houſe built of clay mixed with chopped ſtraw, the walls of which are four feet thick. Its roof is clay, thatched over. It has no windows, but a few holes for the circulation of air. Its door is faced with iron, ſo that the whole is fire proof. Beſides the ground-floor, it has two upper floors. In the ground-floor all ſorts of roots uſed for food and fodder are kept during the winter. Of thoſe ſome of the principal are the root of the long white beet, and of the beet called runcles (*beta maxima*), from which ſugar has been made. The upper ſtories are uſed as granaries. By means of theſe clay houſes the ſevereſt froſts are reſiſted, and fodder is preſerved good during the longeſt winters. In addition to dry fodder, oil-cake ſoups, made by diſſolving the cakes in warm water, are given to both ewes and cows during winter; alſo gruels made with half-ground rye or

or barley. By this mode of management, it appears that much leſs is ſuffered in the hard winters in Saxony, than in thoſe which occaſionally occur among us. Mr Marſh mentions, as the beſt account of the agriculture of that country, a book entitled *Sachſiſcher Landwirth*, written by a Saxon gentleman. This work, he thinks, might afford various inſtructive extracts for our farmers.

An agricultural practice called *warping* which conſiſts in letting in the muddy water of the tides, and ſuffering it to depoſit its ſediment on the land, is now the object of great attention in Lincolnſhire, and appears to be a moſt capital improvement. It is particularly deſcribed in the above-mentioned number of "Annals of Agriculture."

Nothing is of greater importance in the management of arable land than the diſcovery of ſuch methods of cropping, as preclude the neceſſity of having recourſe to the ſyſtem of ſummer fallowing. In this view, experiment has amply ſhewn, that on ſtrong tenacious ſoils, where there is a good deal of moiſture, the cultivation of beans, as a preparation for wheat, may be practiſed with the beſt ſucceſs. In alternating theſe crops it will be neceſſary for the ſoil to have a ſlight dreſſing of manure every two or three years; ten or fifteen loads to the acre will be ſufficient for the purpoſe. In ſowing beans after this proportion of manure has been employed, it has not been found from experience that any inconvenience has ariſen from the beans running too much into height, and thereby being rendered weak in the ſtem, and not well podded. Facts likewiſe ſhew that theſe crops may be cultivated alternately in this manner for any length of time, without the leaſt deterioration of the quality of ſuch lands.

In cropping with wheat after clover, or other green products, ſeveral circumſtances ſhould be more particularly attended to than they would ſeem to be at preſent. In the ploughing down of ſuch green crops, care ſhould not only be taken that the whole of the green matter be turned in, but that ſuch a ſeaſon be choſen for the buſineſs as may have a tendency by its dryneſs and warmth to promote the putrefactive fermentation of the green vegetables. The common practices of ploughing ſlightly, and in wet, damp, weather, are highly improper and diſadvantageous. It is probable, likewiſe, that the putrefactive proceſs might be conſiderably accelerated by a ſlight application of lime in ſuch inſtances.

Where corn is ſown on poor light ſoils, ſuch as blowing ſands, it is an excellent practice, though but little attended to, to fold ſheep upon it ſome days after the grain has been put into the ground, as, by this means the looſe particles of ſuch ſoils are preſſed to the roots, and the growth of the crop greatly promoted.

AMERICAN POT-ASH CAKE.

THE cake under conſideration is called *pot-aſh cake*, becauſe pot-aſh is one of the articles which enter into the compoſition of it. They call it likewiſe *handy cake*, becauſe it can be made ſo *handily*, or in ſo quick and eaſy a manner. Some perſons too have named it *Long Iſland pound cake*, upon a ſuppoſition that the inhabitants of that large and pleaſant iſland, in the State of New York, were peculiarly addicted to the uſe of it. This, however, is a miſtake, for the women on the continent, for a hundred miles up the country, to my certain knowledge, make as much *pot-aſh cake*, eat as much in their families, and love it as well, as the Long-Iſland women do.

A good receipt for this cake is as follows: Take of good wheaten flour

two

two pounds, of butter half a pound, of ſugar half a pound; add to theſe a heaped tea-ſpoonful of ſalt of tartar, or any other form of pot-aſh or pearl-aſh, that will hiſs when vinegar is poured on it. The pot-aſh muſt be diſſolved in a little water before it is added to the other materials; and the ſugar ſtirred in about a pint of milk, and being freed from lumps, the whole muſt be mixed and kneaded well together. This may be done in a very few minutes, and the dough will be inſtantly fit for rolling out and baking. It is to be obſerved, that the milk with which the cake is moiſtened if ſour or coagulated will be preferable.

To make pot-aſh cake light and good, it is neceſſary to conduct the baking briſkly. Therefore the firſt ſtep towards making it ſhould be, to kindle a fire that a ſufficiency of hot coals may be ſeaſonably provided. By the aid of theſe the dough, though flat and unleavened when put into the baking pan, will be puffed up during the operation, into fine and ſpungy cake.

If it is your wiſh to make a cheaper cake than the one for which directions have been given, rye-flour may be employed in the place of wheaten, ſweet lard inſtead of butter, and treacle or molaſſes in lieu of ſugar. The pot-aſh will enliven theſe, but the cake will be injured by a mixture of eggs. Theſe appear to invilcate and entangle the alkali ſo much as to prevent its rarefying or expanſive force. It is therefore a maxim in preparing this cake, *that the plainer and ſimpler the materials the better it will be.* Some under this idea add cream inſtead of butter or lard.

I do not not pretend to be a profound chemiſt, Sir; but I underſtand that the air which puffs up the cake, that I have deſcribed, is the carbonic acid. The pot-aſh employed ought therefore not to be in a cauſtic ſtate, but muſt have been expoſed to the atmoſphere long enough in a jar bottle, or ſome ſuch thing, to have become a *carbonate.* Thus the ſubſtance to be mingled with the cake is a *carbonate of pot-aſh.* It is well known that caloric, if duly applied, will expel the carbonic acid from the vegetable alkali, and the briſk heat of a baking-pan ſeems conſiderable enough for this purpoſe; though I am inclined to think that the *lactic acid* of the ſour milk, by a ſuperior attraction of the pot-aſh, aſſiſts in the extrication of the fixed air, and thereby facilitates the proceſs. By this means, if the ingredients are well proportioned, the cake never taſtes of the alkali, which is now no longer a *carbonate* but a *lactate of pot-aſh.*

Pleaſe to caution thoſe, Sir, who make this kind of cake, that they do not, in their eagerneſs to have it light, add pot-aſh too much over the common rule, which would not only give the cake an alkaline taſte, but make it as heavy as it would have been had pot aſh not entered the mixture. I think from what I have heard the chemiſts ſay, the reaſon muſt be this; the carbonic acid of the pot-aſh being ſet looſe in a quantity diſproportioned to the other ingredients, inſtead of diffuſing itſelf gently through and raiſing the cake, flies in a body too great for the compoſition to contain, and finds vent by burſting holes in the cake, and leaving it in a ſtate very far from ſpungy. This is an error which experienced hands ſeldom commit.

Thus our American houſe-wives are enabled to provide light cake for their viſitors and friends in a few minutes. And really, Sir, this is a great convenience in a rural ſituation, where a woman cannot ſend to a baker, for ruſk, tea-cake, or biſcuit, and where perhaps yeaſt is not to be got, and her leaven is ſpoiled. Or even if ſhe had plenty of leaven, where the company cannot wait three or four hours for carbonic acid to be produced in the common mode by fermentation, to raiſe a batch of dough for them.

RE.

REVIEW OF NEW BOOKS.

Narrative of the Deportation to Cayenne, of Barthelemy, Pichegru, Willot, Marbois, La Rue, Ramel, &c. &c. in conſequence of the Revolution of the 18th Fructidor, (September 4. 1797.) Containing a Variety of important Facts relative to that Revolution, and to the voyage, reſidence, and eſcape of Barthelemy, Pichegru, &c. &c. From the French of General Ramel, formerly Commandant of the Legiſlative Guard. 8vo. 4s. ſewed. Wright.

THE events at Paris of the 4th September 1797, are very generally known, and not much detailed by the preſent writer; who briefly relates thoſe circumſtances in which he was perſonally concerned, as commander of the guard of the legiſlative body. The offence given by General Ramel was his refuſal of obedience to orders ſent by General Angereau, which were contrary to thoſe he had received from the legiſlative body: but there is little doubt that the ſtation which he occupied was, of itſelf, a crime againſt the prevailing rulers ſufficient to involve him among thoſe whom they determined to proſcribe. He was accordingly confined with the arreſted deputies in the Temple. On the 8th of September (22d Fructidor) at two in the morning, they were taken out of priſon, and put into four carriages, which were placed on waggons ſecured with bars of iron on all ſides; forming a kind of cage.

"When (ſays the author) we came down to the foot of the tower, we found Barthelemy between Angereau and Sotin, (the miniſter of the Police,) who, as he brought him to the Temple in his carriage, ſaid to him, "Such is the nature of Revolutions! *He* triumph to-day; to-morrow, perhaps, *your* turn will come." Barthelemy having aſked him if no miſfortune had happened, and whether the public tranquillity had not been diſturbed? Sotin replied, "No; the doſe was a good one; the people have ſwallowed the pill, and it has taken effect." This ſtate apothecary judged but too well, as appeared in the ſequel. Indeed, he ſeemed well verſed in the principles of revolutionary politics; for ſome of the deputies when firſt arreſted, demanding a ſight of the order of the Directory, Sotin anſwered, "It is of very little conſequence, gentlemen, to ſhew you the orders: for when come to theſe extremities, it is the ſame thing whether we commit ourſelves a little more or a little leſs."

In the carriages before deſcribed, the priſoners (ſixteen * in number), under a ſtrong eſcort, were conveyed from Paris to Rochefort, and immediately embarked in a corvette, in order to be carried to Cayenne in South America. The brutal treatment and the variety of hardſhips which they endured, both before and after their embarkation, if they do not afford a proof of natural bad diſpoſition in their conductors, certainly demonſtrate the cruelty which reſults from that ſpecies of political ſycophancy which is created by terror. During their voyage, the priſoners were allowed no other food than *gourgaues* (large beans) boiled; and of this miſerable diet, they had ſcarcely ſufficient to preſerve them from being ſtarved. Pichegru, Willot, Doſſonville, and Ramel, were confined ſeparately from the reſt in one of the lower ſtore-rooms. Their companions exclaimed againſt the ſeparation; and Barthelemy and his faithful Le Tellier jumped down the hatchway with them, but were violently forced to return. Their bread was full of maggots: "the beans," ſays the writer, "were ſtill more loathſome; for, whether from habitual filthineſs or intentional ill will, they never brought us our bucket of food, but we obſerved hairs and vermin at the top."—"One day, Pichegru, who was tormented with hunger, waited with impatience even for this courſe food; and, when the boy brought the bucket, which was almoſt covered with hairs, puſhed him. The boy fell into the bucket, and, being burned, cried aloud and called for help. Pichegru accuſed himſelf of the fact, but we would not allow that he alone was culpable, and

* Barthelemy, Lefond, Ladebat, Preſident of the Council of Elders; Murinais, Tronçon du Coudray, Barbe Marbois, Members of the Council of Elders; Pichegru, Willot, Boardon de l'Oiſe, Aubry, Larue, Rovère, Ramel, Doſſonville, Vaheurnois, Brothier, and Le Tellier.

two pounds, of butter half a pound, of ſugar half a pound; add to theſe a heaped tea-ſpoonful of ſalt of tartar, or any other form of pot-aſh or pearl-aſh, that will hiſs when vinegar is poured on it. The pot-aſh muſt be diſſolved in a little water before it is added to the other materials; and the ſugar ſtirred in about a pint of milk, and being freed from lumps, the whole muſt be mixed and kneaded well together. This may be done in a very few minutes, and the dough will be inſtantly fit for rolling out and baking. It is to be obſerved, that the milk with which the cake is moiſtened if ſour or coagulated will be preferable.

To make pot-aſh cake light and good, it is neceſſary to conduct the baking briſkly. Therefore the firſt ſtep towards making it ſhould be, to kindle a fire that a ſufficiency of hot coals may be ſeaſonably provided. By the aid of theſe the dough, though flat and unleavened when put into the baking pan, will be puffed up during the operation, into fine and ſpungy cake.

If it is your wiſh to make a cheaper cake than the one for which directions have been given, rye-flour may be employed in the place of wheaten, ſweet lard inſtead of butter, and treacle or molaſſes in lieu of ſugar. The pot-aſh will enhaven theſe, but the cake will be injured by a mixture of eggs. Theſe appear to invilcate and entangle the alkali ſo much as to prevent its rarefying or expanſive force. It is therefore a maxim in preparing this cake, *that the plainer and ſimpler the materials are better it will be.* Some under this idea add cream inſtead of butter or lard.

I do not not pretend to be a profound chemiſt, Sir; but I underſtand that the air which puffs up the cake, that I have deſcribed, is the carbonic acid. The pot-aſh employed ought therefore not to be in a cauſtic ſtate, but muſt have been expoſed to the atmoſphere long enough in a jar bottle, or ſome ſuch thing, to have become a *carbonate.* Thus the ſubſtance to be mingled with the cake is a *carbonate of pot-aſh.* It is well known that caloric, if duly applied, will expel the carbonic acid from the vegetable alkali, and the briſk heat of a baking-pan ſeems conſiderable enough for this purpoſe; though I am inclined to think that the *lactic acid* of the ſour milk, by a ſuperior attraction of the pot-aſh, aſſiſts in the extrication of the fixed air, and thereby facilitates the proceſs. By this means, if the ingredients are well proportioned, the cake never taſtes of the alkali, which is now no longer a *carbonate* but a *lactate of pot-aſh.*

Pleaſe to caution thoſe, Sir, who make this kind of cake, that they do not, in their eagerneſs to have it light, add pot-aſh too much over the common rule, which would not only give the cake an alkaline taſte, but make it as heavy as it would have been had pot aſh not entered the mixture. I think from what I have heard the chemiſts ſay, the reaſon muſt be this; the carbonic acid of the pot-aſh being ſet looſe in a quantity diſproportioned to the other ingredients, inſtead of diffuſing itſelf gently through and raiſing the cake, flies in a body too great for the compoſition to contain, and finds vent by burſting holes in the cake, and leaving it in a ſtate very far from ſpungy. This is an error which experienced hands ſeldom commit.

Thus our American houſe-wives are enabled to provide light cake for their viſitors and friends in a few minutes. And really, Sir, this is a great convenience in a rural ſituation, where a woman cannot ſend to a baker, for riſk, tea-cake, or biſcuit, and where perhaps yeaſt is not to be got, and her leaven is ſpoiled. Or even if ſhe had plenty of leaven, where the company cannot wait three or four hours for carbonic acid to be produced in the common mode by fermentation, to raiſe a batch of dough for them.

RE-

REVIEW OF NEW BOOKS.

Narrative of the Deportation to Cayenne, of Barthelemy, Pichegru, Willot, Marbois, La Rue, Ramel, &c. &c. in conſequence of the Revolution of the 18th Fructidor, (September 4. 1797.) Containing a Variety of important Facts relative to that Revolution, and to the voyage, reſidence, and eſcape of Barthelemy, Pichegru, &c. &c. From the French of General Ramel, formerly Commandant of the Legiſlative Guard. 8vo. 4s. ſewed. Wright.

THE events at Paris of the 4th September 1797, are very generally known, and not much detailed by the preſent writer; who briefly relates thoſe circumſtances in which he was perſonally concerned, as commander of the guard of the legiſlative body. The offence given by General Ramel was his refuſal of obedience to orders ſent by General Angereau, which were contrary to thoſe he had received from the legiſlative body: but there is little doubt that the ſtation which he occupied was, of itſelf, a crime againſt the prevailing rulers ſufficient to involve him among thoſe whom they determined to proſcribe. He was accordingly confined with the arreſted deputies in the Temple. On the 8th of September (22d Fructidor) at two in the morning, they were taken out of priſon, and put into four carriages, which were placed on waggons ſecured with bars of iron on all ſides; forming a kind of cage.

"When (ſays the author) we came down to the foot of the tower, we found Barbelemy between Angereau and Sotin, (the miniſter of the Police,) who, as he brought him to the Temple in his carriage, ſaid to him, "Such is the nature of Revolutions! *We* triumph to-day; to-morrow, perhaps, *your* turn will come." Barthelemy having aſked him if no miſfortune had happened, and whether the public tranquillity had not been diſturbed? Sotin replied, "No; the doſe was a good one; the people have ſwallowed the pill, and it has taken effect." This ſtate apothecary judged but too well, as appeared in the ſequel. Indeed, he ſeemed well verſed in the principles of revolutionary politics; for ſome of the deputies when firſt arreſted, demanding a ſight of the order of the Directory, Sotin anſwered, "It is of very little conſequence, gentlemen, to ſhew you the orders: for when come to theſe extremities, it is the ſame thing whether we commit ourſelves a little more or a little leſs."

In the carriages before deſcribed, the priſoners (ſixteen * in number), under a ſtrong eſcort, were conveyed from Paris to Rochefort, and immediately embarked in a corvette, in order to be carried to Cayenne in South America. The brutal treatment and the variety of hardſhips which they endured, both before and after their embarkation, if they do not afford a proof of natural bad diſpoſition in their conductors, certainly demonſtrate the cruelty which reſults from that ſpecies of political ſycophancy which is created by terror. During their voyage, the priſoners were allowed no other food than *gourganes* (large beans) boiled; and of this miſerable diet, they had ſcarcely ſufficient to preſerve them from being ſtarved. Pichegru, Willot, Doſſonville, and Ramel, were confined ſeparately from the reſt in one of the lower ſtore-rooms. Their companions exclaimed againſt the ſeparation; and Barthelemy and his faithful Le Tellier jumped down the hatchway with them, but were violently forced to return. Their bread was full of maggots: "the beans," ſays the writer, "were ſtill more loathſome; for, whether from habitual filthineſs or intentional ill will, they never brought us our bucket of food, but we obſerved hairs and vermin at the top."—"One day, Pichegru, who was tormented with hunger, waited with impatience even for this courſe food; and, when the boy brought the bucket, which was almoſt covered with hairs, puſhed him. The boy fell into the bucket, and, being burned, cried aloud and called for help. Pichegru accuſed himſelf of the fact, but we would not allow that he alone was culpable, and

* Barthelemy, Lefond, Ladebat, Preſident of the Council of Elders; Murinais, Troncon du Coudray, Barbe Marbois, Members of the Council of Elders; Pichegru, Willot, Bourdon de l'Oiſe, Aubry, Larue, Rovère, Ramel, Doſſonville, Vaſſeurnois, Brothier, and Le Tellier.

the captain ordered us all four to be put in irons, and during the two first days with both feet." Occasionally the sea captain (La Porte) threatened them with the discipline of a cat o' nine tails. In the midst of these hardships, it was great consolation to find that some persons belonging to the ship were more humanely disposed; who, with no small risk to themselves, ventured by kind offices, at different opportunities, to alleviate the distresses of such confinement. On first landing at Cayenne, their personal sufferings seemed to be at an end; for the Governor condoled with them on their misfortunes, they were provided with good accommodation, and they were left at full liberty: but "his transient humanity was shortly afterward effaced by a total change of conduct." In consequence of farther communication with La Porte, captain of the ship, the exiles were confined to their apartments, and all intercourse was forbidden with the inhabitants, who had shewn much kindness of disposition towards them: particularly a rich mulatto woman of the name of Marie Rose, who, notwithstanding the danger, continued her good offices whenever opportunity permitted. "This lively concern, which she took in our fate, never abated. It was to Pichegru she always delivered her little presents; and the General never failed to divide them with his companions in misfortune, who participated in the gratitude due to this excellent woman."

On the 22d of November, 11 days after their arrival, they were removed to the canton of Sinamary, 30 leagues to the eastward of Cayenne; in the fort at which place, they were confined during the remainder of their captivity, being lodged in miserable rooms that formerly were used as prisons for fugitive negroes and criminals.

The first care of the prisoners in their new situation was to clean out their rooms: which, not having been lately inhabited, were full of venomous insects.

"We were not secure from serpents that frequently crept into the fort. Pichegru found one of uncommon size, which he killed; it was thicker than his arm, and lay concealed in the folds of his cloak. The insect that tormented us most severely was the *chica* or *niguas*, a species of bug, which enters the pores of the skin, and if it is not carefully removed, breeds there, and destroys the flesh so rapidly, as to render amputation necessary."

No part of the narrative appears to us more curious and interesting, than the account given of the manner in which their time was occupied in this melancholy state of seclusion.

"Notwithstanding the certainty (says the author,) that we were now buried alive; notwithstanding the fatal presages that surrounded us, each fortified his heart with resolution, and nerved himself against the hard law of necessity. Political discussions and individual conversations filled up much of our time, and our common misfortunes were inexhaustible sources of reflection and communication. God forbid that I should here relate all the disputes of which I was witness! When men, whose opinions, professions, talents, and interests were as different as their ages and their passions, are thus reduced to the tedious monotony of unvarying misery, their relative situation produces a constantly changing picture, which however interesting and instructive, I shall not here attempt to pourtray. Not even in the passive inactivity of common adversity, can those minds harmonize, whose judgments and views have been so discordant when in action. I shall therefore confine myself to saying, that each contrived occupations for himself, or sought for amusements according to his own habits and inclinations. Marbois, the serenity of whose mind seemed to proportion itself without exertion to the multiplicity of our misfortunes, exhibited so much calmness and equanimity, that those who were not acquainted with him, might have imagined he was destitute of sensibility. Having caused books to be purchased for him, he read a great deal. He also worked with his hands, and always for some useful or agreeable purpose. He even contrived to make a violin, with which he set the negroes, who were fond of him, to dance. One of them had been at St Domingo during his administration there, and they all highly respected him.

"Troncon du Coudray, with equal fortitude, supported the present evil without complaint. But he wou-

neither preſerve the calmneſs of his mind, nor be maſter of himſelf, nor keep ſilence relative to the events of the 18th Fructidor. That audacious tiſſue of crimes, and the impunity that attended them, ſtill irritated his temper as much as on the firſt day of his fall. He demanded his accuſation, and aſked for judges even of the echoes of Sinamary. He wrote memorials, and applied with ſo much aſſiduity, that his health was impaired by conſtant ſtudy. He wrote a funeral eulogium on his colleague General Murinais, and aſſembled us to hear him pronounce it. This he did with the ſame ſolemnity and grateful eloquence that he diſplayed at the tribune of the Council of Elders; and all the ſoldiers of the garriſon, all the negroes, came to hear him. He took for his text: *Super flumina Babylonis, illic ſedimus et flevimus, donec recordamur Sion.* His affecting eloquence, his full and harmonious voice, the animated picture he drew of the miſeries of our native country, the brilliant glory with which he emblazoned the courage, the loyalty, the innocence, and the virtue of the deceaſed veteran, called forth tears from all our eyes, and the ſoldiers and negroes, who ſoon began to be affected, were at length ſo powerfully agitated that the fort re-echoed with their lamentations! In conſequence of this incident, Jeannet cauſed notice to be given, that whoever ſhould endeavour, by his diſcourſe, to excite the pity of the ſoldiers or the negroes, for the fate of the deported, ſhould be inſtantly ſhot."

The following account is given of General Pichegru:

"He ſtill retained his accuſtomed firmneſs, and ſhewed that confidence, that preſentiment, as it were, of future amelioration, which naturally communicates itſelf to others, and in which I loved to participate. His principal occupation was learning Engliſh: and he preſerved, amidſt all his amuſements and purſuits, his military tone and manners, by which he endeavoured to overcome the tedious monotony of impriſonment. He was often ſinging, and we ſang together ſuch fragments as were applicable to our ſituation; not plaintive or romantic effuſions, but ſuch as abounded in energy of expreſſion or awakened military ardour."

The deſcription of ſufferings does not any where appear to be exaggerated, nor is it related in a ſtrain of deſpondency; yet it is not on that account the leſs affecting. The language is plain, manly, and temperate; and the narrative, unlike the generality of publications reſpecting the late events in France, is not loaded with declamation. Altogether, therefore, it ſtrikes an irreſiſtible and deadly blow at the reputation of thoſe who were the cauſe of ſuch atrocities.

One more extract we are deſirous of giving to our readers. Thoſe of the priſoners who eſcaped from Sinamary were greatly aſſiſted in that enterprize by Captain Tilly, an American, whoſe veſſel had been captured by the French. Soon after their arrival in London, they had the ſatisfaction of meeting this friendly man; who was ſo emaciated that, until he had ſpoken, they did not recognize him. In the account which he gave to them of what paſſed at Cayenne after their departure, is exhibited an inſtance of as groſs and treacherous a violation of private confidence, as any that we recollect in hiſtory.

"On the 5th of June, (ſaid Captain Tilly,) the news of your eſcape arrived at Cayenne, where the joy of the inhabitants was univerſal and ſtrongly expreſſed. On the 6th of June, the frigate La Decade arrived from France with 193 deported perſons. Jeannet received his diſpatches, and nothing tranſpired of their contents. The number of deported perſons, occaſioned a general conſternation. About nine in the evening, Jeannet ſent me an invitation to take tea with him, ſaying he had ſome affairs of trade to talk of. As he had, in my firſt audience, aſſured me that it was with regret he executed his barbarous inſtructions relative to your detention, I now waited on him with confidence on this occaſion. He treated me with more politeneſs than before, and when we were alone, ſaid, "You know the news from France, where tyranny is at its height. Here are again more of the unfortunate deported perſons. Scarcely have eight eſcaped, than they are replaced by 193. I will no longer ſubmit to be the jailor and executioner of my fellow-citizens, in order to ſupport thoſe five villains in impunity. I am determined to a-

bandon the colony. I shall buy your brig, which I will restore to you at Philadelphia, if you will undertake to carry me there." I thanked Jeannet for his confidence, assured him of my attachment, and encouraged him in his virtuous resolution.

"I know," replied he, "that you are an honest man. I am acquainted with your character, and you must have perceived by my silence, how painful it is to me to be the instrument of crimes. I know that it was you that facilitated the escape of the deported from Sinamary, yet I never reproached you with that action."

"I now hesitated no longer frankly to answer this last overture, and not only confessed every thing we had done at Sinamary, but informed Jeannet that besides the packets I had delivered to you, there were on board in a barrel, of which I mentioned the number.

"I had scarcely finished these indiscreet and fatal confessions, when Jeannet rose up in a fury, threw down the table between us, called his guard, ordered me to be seized and chained, and swore that the next day he would have me shot."

There were other considerations, however, more powerful than vengeance. The Governor wished to exculpate himself to the Directory; and Tilly was confined in a dungeon until the frigate La Decade was ready to sail for Europe, by which ship he was to have been transferred to the Directory as a testimonial *to them* of Jeannet's *innocence*: But Providence made a more happy disposition: La Decade was met by some of our cruizers, and conveyed to an English port. The narrative adds that testimonies of esteem and consideration were bestowed on Captain Tilly by the English government.

Travels in Upper and Lower Egypt, by C. S. Sonnini, &c. &c.; translated from the French by Henry Hunter, D. D.

Continued from page 775.

THE journey to Cairo, the capital of Egypt, occupies the Second Volume, and contains a variety of highly curious matter. From the heavy charge of being the native seat of that dreadful scourge of the eastern world, the plague, he vindicates the climate of Egypt. Messrs Volney and Savary had endeavoured to do so before him. For twelve years prior to M. Sonnini's residence there, the plague had not been known in Lower Egypt, though vessels from Constantinople had arrived there, and the inhabitants observed no precautions to prevent the introduction of the disorder. In fact, no epidemic diseases prevail in this country; nor is the stranger ever attacked by those violent and inflammatory fevers, which in America and the West Indies are generally so fatal to him.

Of the manner in which the Egyptians preserve their dead, the author gives a short but interesting account:

"As soon as a person is dead, the Egyptians hasten to press the different parts of the corpse, to free it from all impurities; wash it several times; shave it; pull out all the hair; stop up every aperture closely with cotton; and pour over it odoriferous waters, so that all its pores are penetrated with the perfumes of Arabia. After a profusion of these attentions to cleanliness, and marks of respect for the inanimate remains of the deceased, the corpse is committed to the earth, and deposited in the bosom of eternity. A little pillar of stone, terminated by a turban, is erected over the spot, where the head of the deceased reposes; and to this mark his friends repair every Friday, to repeat their melancholy adieus. The women never fail to pay these visits, and express their hopes and regrets in religious ejaculations: the tears of the daughter water the face of the mother, and the sighs of the mother prolong in her mind with painful remembrance the existence of the children she has lost. I say nothing of the tears of husband and wife, for in this country their relation is merely that of master and slave.

"This pious expression of regard to the dead, so neglected by us in the West, is a sacred duty among the people of the East, and is no where more punctually fulfilled. The idea, that in death we must renounce every mark of affection from all who have been the most dear to us, afflicts the mind, and sinks it into despondency: but he, who is assured, that expressions of regret and the most tender sentiments will accompany him in the grave; that an affectionate

fectionate and durable intercourfe will fubfift between the living and the dead; that, when his eyes are clofed to the light, he will nevertheleſs be ſurrounded by thoſe who were the objects of his regard; feeling as if his mental enjoyments would be perpetuated, and be more delicious becauſe leſs diſtracted by other objects, will enter with courage into that ſpecies of immortality, which ſenſibility prepares for him."

Of the camels, and their manner of travelling, he gives ſome remarkable particulars:

"With qualities of high general utility, theſe valuable animals poſſeſs a great degree of inſtinct and intelligence.

They are ſaid, indeed to be extremely ſenſible of injuſtice and ill-treatment. The Arabs aſſert, that, if a perſon ſtrike them without cauſe, he will not find it eaſy to eſcape their vengeance; and that they will retain their remembrance of it, till an opportunity offer for gratifying their revenge, having in this point a ſtriking ſimilarity of character with their maſters. They are the leaſt patient in rutting time. At this ſeaſon they frequently emit a kind of hoarſe lowing, a ſtrong rattling in the throat, and puſh out of their throat a reddiſh bladder, as large as a hog's, and of a diſguſting appearance. It is ſaid, that in their fits of rage they ſometimes take up a man in their teeth, throw him on the ground and trample him under their feet. Eager to revenge themſelves they no longer retain any rancour, when once they are ſatisfied: and it is even ſufficient, if they believe they have ſatisfied their vengeance. Accordingly, when an Arab has excited the rage of a camel, he lays down his garments in ſome place near which the camel will paſs, and diſpoſes them in ſuch a manner, that they appear to cover a man ſleeping under them. The camel knows the garments of him, by whom he has been treated with injuſtice; ſeizes them in his teeth; ſhakes them with violence; and tramples on them in a rage. When his anger is appeaſed, he leaves them, and then the owner of the dreſs may make his appearance without fear, load and guide wherever he pleaſes the animal, who obeys with aſtoniſhing docility to the will of a man, whom before it was his wiſh to deſtroy.

"I have ſometimes ſeen *hadjins*, or dromedaries, weary of the impatience of their riders, ſtop ſhort, turn round their long neck to bite them, and utter cries of rage. In theſe circumſtances the rider muſt be careful not to alight, as he would infallibly be torn to pieces: he muſt alſo refrain from ſtriking his beaſt, which would only increaſe his fury. Nothing can be done but to have patience, and appeaſe the animal by patting him with the hand, which frequently requires ſome time, when he will reſume his way and his pace of himſelf. The pace of theſe is a very long trot, during which they carry the head high, and the tail ſtretched out in a horizontal poſition. The ſaddle, or rather pack-ſaddle, on which the rider ſits, is hollowed in the middle, and has at each ſaddle-bow a round piece of wood, placed vertically, which he graſps firmly with each hand, to keep himſelf in his ſeat. Some of theſe ſaddles are more ſimple, not ſo well ſtuffed, and leſs convenient, than thoſe of the Arabs; and the handles at the ſaddle-bows are horizontal. Theſe are brought from Sennaar, the capital of Nubia. A long pocket on each ſide, to hold proviſion for the rider and his beaſt; a ſkin of water for the rider alone, as the dromedary can travel a week without drinking; with a leather thong in the hand, to ſerve as a whip; are the whole of a traveller's equipage: and thus equipped he may croſs the deſerts, travelling fifty, nay fourſcore leagues a-day. This mode of travelling is fatiguing to exceſs: the loins are broken (bruiſed) by the rough and quick ſhaking of the dromedary's pace; the hands are ſoon galled, and very painful; and the burning air, which you divide with rapidity, impedes the breath, ſo as almoſt to induce ſuffocation."

Leaving Roſetta, the firſt ſtation made by the party was the Arab or Bedouin camp; whence Sonnini had engaged his guide.

After having eſcaped out of the hands of the Arabs, the traveller and his party, with great difficulty, obtained admiſſion into the convent. The account which he gives of the groſs ignorance, the diſguſting filth, the ſavage manners, and the ſhameleſs extortion of theſe Chriſtians of the deſert, will raiſe ſurpriſe and indignation even in thoſe who think worſt of monaſtic inſtitutions.

tions. M. Sonini gives the following account of the parting ſcene between him and the principal of the convent:

"Preparing to quit theſe vile hoſts, I propoſed to make them a preſent, in return for the unpleaſant abode we had among them; and ſoon perceived that I had to deal with men more dangerous than the Bedouins, who, frank and generous in their friendſhip, diſplay a ſort of honour even in their robberies. The ſuperior told me, that he was willing I ſhould beſtow ſomething in the firſt place on the monaſtery, ſecondly on the embelliſhment of the chapel, thirdly on the poor, and laſtly on himſelf. Having liſtened patiently to this long catalogue of wants, I had ſome curioſity to know at what they were eſtimated, and aſked how large a ſum would be ſufficient for theſe ſeveral purpoſes. After a few moments calculation, the monk anſwered, that, as the convent wanted white waſhing all over, he ſuppoſed the whole would require five or ſix hundred ſequins. This was a trifle, to be ſure, for five days lodging and board on lentil bread and and lentils and water. However, I made him an offer in my turn. The contents of my purſe, in paſſing thro' the hands of the Arabs, had been conſiderably diminiſhed; and the payment of what I had agreed to give Huſſein, reduced the remainder to ſix ſequins, which I offered to the ſuperior. His calculation and mine were intolerably wide of each other; and in conſequence the monk fell into a paſſion, which it would not be eaſy to deſcribe. He loaded me with invectives, proteſted he would accept nothing, and ſwore by the ſaints of his church, that I ſhould ſoon repent what he called my ingratitude. The wretch dared to invoke the juſtice of Heaven, on which he founded his ſacrilegious hopes, and which, he ſaid, would not fail to ſend him ſome Arabs, to whom he would give intelligence of my route, and whom he would commiſſion to be his avengers. At this I could no longer keep my temper, and I ſhould have beaten out the raſcal's brains on the ſpot, if the Bedouins, who were come for me, had not conveyed him out of my reach.

"At length I had quitted this infernal abode, and was going to mount the aſs deſigned for my riding, when the old monk ſent to entreat me to give him the ſix ſequins I had offered him. The Arab ſheick having undertaken to deliver the meſſage, on his account I gave them to the monk; and immediately we ſaw the wretch putting up his prayers to that Heaven, the vengeance of which he had invoked upon our heads a few minutes before, to ſend us a proſperous journey."

On their arrival at Etris, a village on the borders of the deſert, near to the camp to which theſe guides belonged, the Arab chief diſplayed a trait of generoſity which certainly deſerves all the applauſe and admiration that the author pays to it:

"I had (ſays he) informed the *ſheick*, at our firſt interview in the deſert, that I could not poſſibly pay him for the eſcort and beaſts with which he furniſhed me, before I returned from Cairo, whether I intended to proceed, to obtain a freſh ſupply for my purſe, which had been emptied by his countrymen. His anſwer was, that he was perfectly eaſy about his pay, and not only ſo, but had money at my ſervice. I had paid little attention to the latter part of this anſwer; forgetting that I was no longer in a country where the heart and lips are at variance, and where an abundance of words, apparently kind, are often nothing more than the expreſſions of indifference, and ſometimes proceed from the mouth of one in whoſe heart is concealed hatred; where ſuch offers, ſuch attentions, are conſidered as unmeaning compliments, as words of courſe, which the perſon who makes them has no intention to perform, and in which the perſon who declines them puts no truſt.

"The repaſt was no ſooner over, than my hoſt went to a little coffer, that ſtood in a corner of the tent, took out a little bag of money, and preſenting to me, ſaid: "I know every thing that has happened to you. With indignation I witneſſed the raſcally behaviour of the monk at *Zaidi el Barmous*. I am well aware, that, in conſequence of the letters of recommendation you have, you will receive all the aſſiſtance you want from the *Kiaſchef* of *Wardan*; but you will give me great pain if you apply to a dog of a Turk, to a Mameluk. I cannot bear that one, with whom I have eaten the repaſt of friendſhip, whom I have pro-

tected at the hazard of my life, and who is become my brother, ſhould have recourſe to another for aſſiſtance. Take this money: it is yours. If you refuſe it, I ſhall think that you diſdain a friend, becauſe he is one of the people of the deſart." What generoſity of ſentiment! what greatneſs of mind! Yet this very man would have ſtripped me, if he had caſually met with me in the wilderneſs. In return for this frank and ſincere cordiality, and that I might not offend my hoſt, I took a few *patacas*, which he would not ſee me count, any more than he would liſten to me, when I promiſed to pay them on my return from Cairo, which would be very ſhortly."

Having completed his journey thro' the deſert, M. Sonnini contented himſelf with diſpatching one of his people to Cairo, and on his return proceeded again toward Roſetta. We learn little that is intereſting reſpecting his navigation down the Nile. It conſiſts chiefly in the enumeration of the villages which are built on its banks, of the natural productions which he found, and of ſome threatened dangers from the robbers or pirates who infeſt the river, but from whom he ſuffered no actual injury.

The government of Egypt, though in form ariſtocratic and republican, is in fact a deſpotiſm. Twenty-four Beys poſſeſs the ſupreme power, of whom one is always *governor-general* or *ſheick el belled*; that is to ſay, a tyrant who governs purely by his own will. The Porte indeed pretends to power here, but they do not poſſeſs it. Their Pacha at Cairo, ſays Mr S., is an officer tolerated and nominal, but neither obeyed nor reſpected. All the Beys muſt have been Mameluks: ſtrangers to Egypt, brought at an early age from Georgia, Circaſſia, and other provinces of the Ottoman empire, where they are bought by merchants who afterward ſell them at Cairo. They are educated by the Beys who purchaſe them, in the faith of Mohammed, and in the art of war as practiſed by the Egyptians. They riſe gradually in proportion to their genius, their valour, and (frequently) their crimes; until at laſt the moſt enterpriſing and ambitious attain the dignity of Bey. To reach this rank, it is eſſential that the party be a ſtranger: even the children of Mamelukes are diſqualified to fill it. With ſuch rulers, the government muſt be oppreſſive: it is guided by no principle but that of pure deſpotiſm,—that the people and their property belong to their tyrant. Of Mourat Bey, ſince the moſt formidable opponent of Buonaparte in Egypt, we have here ſome intereſting particulars; and among the plates is a good portrait of him. He is deſcribed as poſſeſſing all the martial qualities which can be connected with untaught valour.—He has poſſeſſed the ſupreme power in Egypt ſince the year 1776.

In peruſing the latter part of this volume, the reader will find a variety of intereſting information concerning the military and moral character of theſe maſters of Egypt. He will alſo find much reſpecting the cuſtoms of the people, their commerce, and their pleaſures.

(*To be continued.*)

Practical Education; by Maria Edgeworth, Author of "Letters for Literary Ladies," and "The Parent's Aſſiſtant;"—and by Richard Lovel Edgeworth, F. R. S. and M. R. I. A. 4to. 1l. 10s. Boards. *Johnſon.*

(*Continued from p. 767.*)

Chap 9. "*Rewards and Puniſhments.*" THIS chapter commences by diſcuſſing the nature of *puniſhment* in general; and then applying it to the government of children. The authors conſider the application of juvenile puniſhment, as directed almoſt altogether by the ſame principles which operate in the government of ſociety. All writers on criminal law have inſiſted on the utility of immediate puniſhments. With reſpect to children, however, they are much more neceſſary than with reſpect to the offender againſt the laws of ſociety; for, though with the latter the effect of puniſhment is weakened in proportion to the time which elapſes between the commiſſion of the crime and the conviction of the criminal; with children, the effect is wholly loſt, unleſs it be immediate; for it is impoſſible that they ſhould underſtand the connection between the offence and the puniſhment, unleſs the one be immediately conſequent on the other. The preſent authors likewiſe contend that, in order to render puniſhment intelligible to children, it muſt not only be immediately

diately but repeatedly and uniformly associated with the actions which we wish them to avoid.—Another distinction to be observed in the nature of punishment, when applied to men in society, or to children in the nursery, is this; that, in the one, the object of punishment is simply the reformation of the offender; in the other, it is to afford an example to deter others from the commission of similar offences. In society, therefore, though ever so long an interval should occur between the commission of the offence and the conviction of the offender, as would render him incapable of committing the like again, yet punishment must be inflicted, lest this instance of impunity should encourage other similar offenders. With regard to children, however, an intervening repentance, if sincere, may and ought to be allowed to avert the penalty.—The writers then insist on the propriety and necessity of parents and tutors dispensing punishment with justice, uninfluenced by caprice or passion; and that the due measure of punishment to be inflicted is the smallest possible degree of pain which can produce the required effect.

On the subject of *rewards*, we shall present our readers with a passage or two, which will perhaps better explain the principles and reasoning here urged, than any analysis which we can give.

"Would you encourage benevolence, generosity, or prudence, let each have its appropriate reward of affection, esteem, and confidence; but do not by ill-judged bounties attempt to force these virtues into premature display. The rewards which are unduly given to benevolence and generosity in children frequently encourage selfishness, and sometimes teach them cunning. Lord Kaimes tells us a story, which is precisely to the point. Two boys, the sons of the Earl of Elgin, were permitted by their father to associate with the poor boys in the neighbourhood. One day the Earl's sons had gratified to dinner, a lad who was playing with them, told that he would wait till they returned: "There is no dinner for me at home," said the poor boy. "Come with us then," said the Earl's sons. The boy refused; and when they asked him if he had any money to buy a dinner, he answered, "No."—"Pity," said the eldest of the young gentlemen when he got home, "what was the price of the silver buckles you gave me?" 'Five shillings.'—"Let me have the money and I will give you the buckles." It was done accordingly, says Lord Kaimes. The Earl, inquiring privately, found that the money was given to the lad who had no dinner. The buckles were returned, and the boy highly recommended for being kind to his companion. The commendations were just, but the buckles should not have been returned: the boy should have been suffered steadily to abide by his own bargain; he should have been let feel the pleasure and pay the exact price of his own generosity. If we attempt to teach children that they can be generous, without giving up some of their own pleasures for the sake of other people, we attempt to teach them what is false. If we once make them amends for any sacrifice they have made, we lead them to expect the same commiseration upon a future occasion; and then in fact, they act with a direct view to their own interest, and govern themselves by the calculations of prudence, instead of following the dictates of benevolence.'—

"In rewarding children for their prudential virtues, such as order, cleanliness, economy, temperance, &c. we should endeavour to make the rewards the immediate consequence of the virtues themselves, and at the same time approbation should be shewn in speaking of these useful qualities. A gradation must however always be observed in our praises of different virtues; those that are the most useful to society, as truth, justice, and humanity, must stand the highest in the scale; those that are most agreeable claim the next place. Those good qualities, which must wait a considerable time for their reward, such as perseverance, prudence, &c. we must not expect early from young people. Till they have had experience, how can they form any idea about the future? till they have been punctually rewarded for their industry, or for their prudence, they do not feel the value of prudence and perseverance. Time is necessary to all these lessons, and those who leave time out in their calculations, will always be disappointed in whatever plan of education they may pursue.'

Chap.

Chap. 10. "*Sympathy and Senſibility.*" Here the authors aſſume, with Dr Adam Smith, that ſympathy is the ſource of all our moral feelings; but, as this power, without the aſſiſtance and education of reaſon, would render us, if not as incapable of ſocial intercourſe as the man without ſympathy, at leaſt much more dangerous Beings to ſociety, the preſent writers recommend great caution to parents in calling this power into action, and reſpecting the temptations to which they expoſe it. Above all things they recommend, as the beſt protection againſt thoſe errors into which power is apt to lead mankind, both in childhood and in manhood, the cultivation of the underſtanding and of reaſon.

The remainder of this chapter is occupied with ſome very ſenſible animadverſions on the abſurdity and ill conſequences of giving to children a ſentimental education; that is, of attempting to develope the ſocial affections by rules and precepts.

"Charity to the poor is often inculcated in books for children; but how is this virtue to be actually brought into practice in childhood? Without proper objects of charity are ſelected by the parents, children have no opportunities of diſcovering them; they have not ſufficient knowledge of the world to diſtinguiſh truth from falſehood in the complaints of the diſtreſſed; nor have they ſufficiently enlarged views to diſcern the beſt means of doing good to their fellow-creatures. They may give away money to the poor, but they do not always feel the value of what they give; they give counters: ſupplied with all the neceſſaries and luxuries of life, they have no uſe for money, they feel no privation, they make no ſacrifice in giving money away, or at leaſt none worthy to be extolled as heroic. When children grow up, they learn the value of money: their generoſity will then coſt them rather more effect, and yet can be rewarded only with the ſame expreſſions of gratitude, with the ſame bleſſings from the beggar or the ſame applauſe from the ſpectator. Let us put charity out of the queſtion, and ſuppoſe that the generoſity of children is diſplayed in making preſents to their companions; ſtill there are difficulties. Theſe preſents are uſually baubles, which at beſt can encourage only a frivolous taſte. But we muſt further conſider, that even generous children are apt to expect generoſity equal to their own from their companions; then come tacit or explicit compariſons of the value or elegance of their reſpective gifts; the difficult rules of exchange and barter are to be learned; and nice calculations of tare and tret are entered into by the repentant borrower and lender: a ſentimental too often ends in a commercial intercourſe; and thoſe who begin with the moſt munificent diſpoſitions, ſometimes end with ſelfiſh diſcontent, low cunning, or diſguſting oſtentation."

Chap. 11. "*Vanity, Pride, and Ambition.*" In this chapter, the authors conſider that every paſſion of the human breaſt, when under the proper controul of reaſon, is capable of anſwering a good end. The utility of thoſe which are the ſubject of this chapter, in the education of youth, muſt be obvious to all who have given a moment's reflection to the queſtion. It is the buſineſs of the tutor to take care that he uſes them with moderation, that he directs them to proper objects, and that he does not encourage them to grow beyond the limits of temperance and reaſon.

Chap. 12. "*Books.*" The remarks on this head are commenced with ſome obſervations on Mrs Barbauld's *Leſſons for Children*, and Berquin's *Children's Friend*. Some objectionable paſſages in the former, and ſome improper ſtories in the latter, are judiciouſly pointed out. The value of theſe well received books is, however, juſtly appreciated. The practice of *ſifting* books, before they are put into the hands of children is ſtrongly recommended: this may be done by cutting out, or obliterating the paſſages which are not to be read; or, if the book be too valuable to undergo theſe *hypercritical* operations, it ſhould be read only in the preſence of the parent or tutor; or, if the child can be truſted, the paſſages which are not to be read may be marked with a pencil. Very ſtrict habits of obedience, however, muſt be formed, before his curioſity may be ſafely expoſed to ſuch a temptation.—This practice is chiefly recommended on the principle, that children ſhould be preſerved from the knowledge of any vice

or any folly, of which the idea has never yet entered their minds; and which they are not neceſſarily diſpoſed to learn by early example.

"Children who have never lived with ſervants, who have never aſſociated with ill educated companions of their own age, and who in their own family have heard nothing but good converſation, and ſeen but good examples; will in their language, their manners, and their whole diſpoſitions, be not only free from many of the faults common amongſt children, but they will abſolutely have no idea that there are ſuch faults.—Such children ſhould be ſeduloufly kept from contagion; their minds are untainted; they are ſafe in that ſpecies of ignorance which can alone deſerve the name of bliſs. No books ſhould be put into the hands of this happy claſs of children but ſuch as preſent the beſt models of virtue; there is no occaſion to ſhock them with caricatures of vice. Such caricatures they will not even underſtand to be well drawn, becauſe they are unacquainted with any thing like the originals. Examples to deter them from faults to which they have no propenſity, muſt be uſeleſs, and may be dangerous.—The love of novelty and of imitating characters deſcribed in a book, or actions which ſtrike them as ſingular, they often commit real faults."

Theſe remarks apply principally to children who have been privately educated: with regard to pupils intended for a *public ſchool*, a great nicety in the ſelection of their books is obviouſly unneceſſary.—Of ſentimental ſtories, the authors recommend a ſparing uſe, eſpecially in the education of females;

"Becauſe, this ſpecies of reading cultivates what is called *the heart* prematurely, lowers the tone of the mind, and induces indifference in theſe common pleaſures and occupations, which, however trivial in themſelves, conſtitute by far the greateſt portion of our daily happineſs. And beſides the danger of creating a romantic taſte, there is reaſon to believe, that this ſpecies of reading has an effect directly oppoſite to what it is intended to produce. It diminiſhes, inſtead of increaſing, the ſenſibility of the heart; a combination of romantic imagery is requiſite to act upon the affections of ſentimental people, and they are virtuous only when virtue is in perfectly good taſte."

Voyages and travels, ſuch as *Robinſon Cruſoe* and *The three Ruſſian Sailors*, ſhould not be early choſen for boys of an interpriſing temper, unleſs they are intended for a ſeafaring life, or for the army.—Natural hiſtory is a ſtudy particularly recommended to children, as cultivating their talents for obſervation, and applying to objects which are within their reach, and are every day intereſting to them.—On the ſubject of hiſtorical reading, the authors are of opinion that the plaineſt chronicles, which contain no political tenet or dogma, are the beſt hiſtories for children; and that their acquiſition of hiſtorical knowledge might with great advantage be aided by occaſional explanations in converſation, by prints, or by a diſplay of the moſt diſtinguiſhed perſonages in a magic lanthorn, or by the *Ombres chinoiſes*. This part of the diſcuſſion is interſperſed with ſome very intelligent obſervations on the falſe ideas of individual and national character, contained in ſome even of the beſt abridgments of hiſtory for children.

The remainder of this chapter is occupied by criticiſms on the Abbé Condillic's *Cours d'étude pour l'inſtruction du Prince de Parma.*

Philoſophical Tranſactions of the Royal Society of London, for the year 1796. Part I. 4to. 8s. ſewed. *Elmſly and Bremner.*

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On a Submarine Foreſt on the Eaſt Coaſt of England. By Joſeph Correa de Serra, LL.D. F. R. S. & A. S.

The foreſt deſcribed in this paper is ſituated near Sutton, on the coaſt of Lincolnſhire. It conſiſts of a number of iſlets of moor, viſible only in the loweſt ebbs of the year, and chiefly compoſed of decayed trees, which extend at leaſt twelve miles in length, and about a mile in breadth. They form, however, a part of a very extenſive ſubterraneous ſtratum, which has been traced as far as Peterborough, (more than 60 miles to the ſouth of Sutton,) and which reaches, on the north ſide, as far as Grimſby, on the ſouth ſide of the mouth of the Humber. Many circumſtances are noticed, which aſcertain the identity of thoſe widely-extended tracts that exhibit tokens of decayed trees; and which, in ſome diſtant period, have been ſtripped of their covering of ſoil by an irruption of the ſea. The iſlets, examined by Dr Correa, in company with the Preſident of the Royal Society, conſiſted almoſt entirely of roots, trunks, branches, or leaves of trees and ſhrubs, intermixed with ſome leaves of aquatic plants.

"The remains of ſome of theſe trees were ſtill ſtanding on their roots; while the trunks of the greater part lay ſcattered on the ground, in every poſſible direction. The bark of the trees and roots appeared generally as freſh as when they were growing; in that of the birches particularly, of which a great quantity was found, even the thin ſilvery membranes of the outer ſkin were diſcernible. The timber of all kinds, on the contrary, was decompoſed and ſoft, in the greateſt part of the trees; in ſome, however, it was firm, eſpecially in the knots. The people of the country have often found among them very ſound pieces of timber, fit to be employed for ſeveral economical purpoſes. The ſorts of wood which are ſtill diſtinguiſhable are birch, fir, and oak. Other woods evidently exiſt in theſe iſlets, of ſome of which we found the leaves in the ſoil."

The ſoil, in which theſe trees grew, is a ſoft greaſy clay: but it is compoſed, for many inches above its ſurface, of rotten leaves; ſome of which belonged to the *Ilex Aquifolium*, and others to ſome ſpecies of willow.

After a deſcription of the vegetable ruins which are the ſubject of this paper, the author proceeds to enquire what is the epoch of the deſtruction to which they are owing, and by what agency it was effected. Many inſtances are recited, in which a force of ſubſidence, the natural conſequence of gravity, operating ſlowly though conſtantly, and aided by extraneous cauſes, has produced ſimilar effects.

"This force, (ſays the author,) ſuddenly acting by means of ſome earthquake, ſeems to me the moſt probable cauſe to which the actual ſubmarine ſituation of the foreſt we are ſpeaking of may be aſcribed. It affords a ſimple eaſy explanation of the matter; its probability is ſupported by numberleſs inſtances of ſimilar events; and it is not liable to the ſtrong objections which exiſt againſt the hypotheſis of the alternate depreſſion and elevation of the level of the ocean; an opinion, which, to be credible, requires the ſupport of a great number of proofs, leſs equivocal than thoſe which have hitherto been urged in his favour, even by the genius of a Lavoiſier."

At what period this cataſtrophe happened, it is not eaſy to aſcertain. The ſtratum of ſoil, ſixteen feet thick, placed above the decayed trees, ſeems to remove the epoch of their ſinking and deſtruction far beyond the reach of any hiſtorical knowledge. In Cæſar's time, the level of the North Sea appears to have been the ſame that it is now; and, as Maritime Flanders and the oppoſite coaſt of England exactly reſemble each other, both in point of elevation above the ſea, and of internal ſtructure and arrangement of their ſoils, theſe two countries muſt be coeval. The author thinks, therefore, that

"Whatever proves that Maritime Flanders has been for many ages out of the ſea, muſt, in my opinion, prove alſo that the foreſt we are ſpeaking of was long before that time deſtroyed, and buried under a ſtratum of ſoil.

Now it ſeems proved, from hiſtorical records, carefully collected by ſeveral learned members of the Bruſſels Academy, that no material change has happened to the lowermoſt part of Maritime Flanders, during the period of the laſt two thouſand years."

On the whole, it appears that the event which produced this foreſt muſt have been of a very antient date: but the inroad of the ſea, which uncovered the decayed trees of the iſlets of Sutton, was comparatively recent.

"The ſtate of the leaves, (continues this ingenious philoſopher,) and of the timber, and alſo the tradition of the neighbouring people, concur to ſtrengthen this ſuſpicion. Leaves, and other delicate parts of plants, though they may be long preſerved in a ſubterraneous ſituation, cannot remain uninjured, when expoſed to the action of the waves and of the air. The people of the country believe that their pariſh church once ſtood on the ſpot where iſlets now are, and was ſubmerged by the inroads of the ſea; that at very low water their anceſtors could even diſcern its ruins; that their preſent church was built to ſupply the place of that which the waves waſhed away; and that even their preſent clock belonged to the old church."

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POETRY.

FEMALE EDUCATION,

NOW AND FORMERLY CONTRASTED.

MAY I ſome ſmall attention ſhare,
If ſeniors grant me leave,
Their education to compare
With that we now receive?

Obſerve then: firſt they learn'd to read,
I do not ſay *now well*;
And learn'd to write, and ſome, indeed,
Some few, *once learn'd to ſpell.*

No grammar at their ſchools was taught,
Such knowledge was debar'd her;
As uſeleſs in the kitchen thought,
As uſeleſs in the larder!

Who never from her duty ſwerv'd,
But work'd th' appointed ſkreen,
Her *ſtraw and ripe fruit preſerv'd*,
And *pick'd what was green.*

Theſe homely merits would alone
A choice of lovers bring her;
Palm of her hand as hard as ſtone,
And *incarnated finger.*

The *finger* ſhew'd, by *needle torn*,
One prudent occupation.

The

The other prov'd the *broom had borne*
Its parts in *education.*

But now, that hand that "wou'd be woo'd"
Muſt be *as ſoft as cygnet's down;*
Nor with *inſtructious tokens rude,*
As it had ſpun the ruſſet gown.

Let me remark; while we compare—
The chief objection made is,
Our anceſtors *good houſewives* were,
The preſent race, *fine ladies.*

The ſyſtem ſhou'd be new-arrang'd;
Some faults there are remov'd;
But *thoſe* for *other faults* are chang'd;
'Tis alter'd, not improv'd.

Beſt ſpecimens of what I treat,
In middle rank we find;
For there the Graces oft we meet
With Induſtry combin'd!

Now let me introduce—*Good la!*
I drop my pen; deſcription fails—
Miſs—come home wiſer than *mamma,*
Prepar'd to tell *ſurpriſing* tales!

Thinking ſuch talents ſhou'd be known,
She through the peaceful village ſends,
With Miſs's *compers* and her own,
Invites her kind-folk and her friends.

Miſs on her mother paſſes jeſts,
Who comes with ſauce-boat in her hand,
And prays the pardon of her gueſts;
"*Her maid,*" ſhe ſays, "*don't under-*
"*ſtand!*"

"*She ne'er was before in place.*"
"*Law, ma!*" ſays Miſs, "*that is ſo*
"*funny!*
"*Before I would've ſo born my face!*
"*You might have any thing for money.*"

Miſs laughs, when Mother's at a loſs,
And *pretty* tells her ſhe is wrong;
Each his *conviction* with *the ſcore,*
The *mother's hand,* the *daughter's tongue!*

And while ſhe ſees *her* opening mind
By novels ev'ry day enriching,
To *all* they arts could'ſt *add,*
She triumphs in the kitchen!

And drinking too! how fam'd was he,
That *upright* man, with pride elate,
If bumper paſs'd, his *eyes could ſee*
Each *ſtarting friend* his *chair* evacate.

But in this age of genuflexion,
We from ſuch things diſguſted turn;
To eat and drink's out of the queſtion,
What do we now? "We live and
"learn."

"And learn! what learn the ladies,
"pray?"
Sir, did you want a wife? "Why—
"yes"—
They learn to draw, to ſing, to play,
To march, to ſkip, to dance, to dreſs.

While men are ſtudying claſſic rules,
Immers'd in *grave recels at College,*
Our ſex are taught, at boarding-ſchools,
Moſt ſuperficial knowledge.

Some men of ſenſe there are advance,
The ſofter ſex may be too wiſe;
Wou'd rather wed fair ignorance;
A blank preferring to a prize!

Hear Oſmyn cry, "What! ſhou'd the
"fair,
"Abſtruſely educated then,
"Profoundly deep reſearches ſhare,
"Study with ſcientific men?

"Forbid it all ye ſofter powers,
"Ye Loves forbid it—Cupid—Venus!
"What! no advantage ſtill be ours,
"No difference, ye gods! between us!

"Your genius ſoaring ſuch a height,
"Cannot deſcend to houſehold ſtuff,"
That *female,* Sir, who *acts not right,*
Believe me, *does not enough.*

She who your learn'd reſearches ſhare,
Who "ſees the work in ſenſe ſublime,"
Will not neglect domeſtic cares;
She knows "for all things there's a
"time!"

A RIDDLE.

BLITHE Aphrodite ever young
Was ſhapen from the foam of ſea:
Of purer cryſtal I am ſprung,
And ſmoother billows faſhion'd me.

Cupid and I both bend our bows,
By Beauty's temples both incline;
He o'er his eyes a bandage throws;
A twofold luſtre gleams from mine.

Like him, the fringed brow I ſeek,
And aid each looking charm to fly;
Like him, I pillow on the cheek,
And neſtle near the languid eye.

A quiver on his ſhoulder ſhines,
In rattling cafe my powers I hide:
In couples, he the young confines;
In pairs, a graver throng I guide.

Of him let head-long paſſion learn:
Philoſophy learns much through me.
Can you not yet my name diſcern—
I've help'd you, I ſuſpect, to tea?

DEC.

DECEMBER MORNING,

BY MISS ANNA SEWARD.

I LOVE to rife ere gleams the tardy light,
Winter's pale dawn;—and as warm fires illume,
And cheerful tapers fhine around the room,
Through miſty windows bend my muſing ſight
Where round the duſky lawn, the manſions white,
With ſhutters cloſed, peer faintly through the gloom,
That ſlow recedes; while yon grey ſpires aſſume,
Riſing from their dark pile, an added height
By indiſtinctneſs given.—Then to decree
The grateful thoughts to GOD, ere they unfold
To friendſhip, or the Muſe, or ſeek with glee
Wiſdom's rich page!—O hours! more worth than gold,
By whoſe bleſt uſe we lengthen life, and tree
From drear decays of age, outlive the old!

EXPOSTULATION AND REPLY*.

WHY William, on that old grey ſtone,
Thus for the length of half a day,
Why William, ſit you thus alone,
And dream your time away?

Where are your books? that light bequeath'd
To beings elſe forelorn and blind!
Up! Up! and drink the ſpirit breath'd
From dead men to their kind.

You look round on your mother earth,
As if ſhe for no purpoſe bore you;
As if you were her firſt-born birth,
And none had lived before you!

One morning thus, by Eſthwaite lake,
When life was ſweet I knew not why,
To me my good friend Matthew ſpake,
And thus I made reply.

The eye it cannot chuſe but ſee,
We cannot bid the ear be ſtill;
Our bodies feel, where'er they be,
Againſt, or with our will.

Nor leſs I deem that there are powers,
Which of themſelves our minds impreſs,
That we can feed this mind of ours,
In a wiſe paſſiveneſs.

Think you, mid all this mighty ſum
Of things for ever ſpeaking,
That nothing of itſelf will come,
But we muſt ſtill be ſeeking?

—Then aſk not wherefore, here, alone,
Converſing as I may,
I ſit upon this old grey ſtone,
And dream my time away.

AN EVENING SCENE*.

UP! up! my friend, and clear your looks,
Why all this toil and trouble?
Up! up! my friend, and quit your books,
Or ſurely you'll grow double.

Then fun above the mountain's head,
A heathening luſtre mellow,
Through all the long green fields has ſpread,
His firſt ſweet evening yellow.

Books! 'tis a dull and endleſs ſtrife,
Come, hear the woodland linnet,
How ſweet his muſic; on my life
There's more of wiſdom in it.

And hark! how blithe the throſtle ſings!
And he is no mean preacher;
Come forth into the light of things,
Let Nature be your teacher.

She has a world of ready wealth,
Our minds and hearts to bleſs—
Spontaneous wiſdom breath'd by health,
Truth breath'd by cheerfulneſs.

One impulſe from a vernal wood
May teach you more of man;
Of moral evil and of good,
Than all the ſages can.

Sweet is the lore which nature brings;
Our meddling intellect
Miſ-ſhapes the beauteous forms of things;
—We murder to diſſect.

Enough of ſcience and of art;
Cloſe up theſe barren leaves;
Come forth, and bring with you a heart
That watches and receives.

* From *Lyrical Ballads* lately publiſhed.

HUNT-

HUNTING.

BY THE LATE MR J. H. BEATIE,
Son of Dr Beatie.

BRIGHT rays of purple are the ſky,
And gild the ſhav'ring ſtream,
Beyond the weſtern miſt on high,
While the gay woodlands gleam.

Hark! how the voice of hound and horn
Floats in the fragrant gale;
Along the ruſtling thicket borne,
And down the ſhadowy vale.

They paſs; nor Fancy's modeſt ear
The ſhouting train purſues;
No ſcreams of bloody triumph cheer
The ſolitary muſe.

Ye, whoſe victorious arts beguile
The fluſt'rer of its breath;
Who watch, with fierce unthinking ſmile,
The languid throbs of death.—

Haſte, let your harmleſs captives bleed:
Ye, too, muſt fall as they;
Death, on a ſwift tho' noiſeleſs ſteed,
Purſues you as his prey.

Nor yet prolong the victim's woe,
In ling'ring terror driv'n;
Kill, do not torture, mercy ſhow,
And mercy hope from Heav'n.

MURDER OF THE FRENCH MINISTERS AT RASTADT.

THE following Papers reſpecting the Murder of the French Plenipotentaries at Raſtadt, clearly develope the whole ſecret of the buſineſs, and ſhow on whom the infamy of that tranſaction ought to light.

[The Papers are extracted from the THE AUGSBURGH GAZETTE.]

Copy of a Letter from Monſieur de Bar-[illegible], Colonel of Huſſar Szeckler, to his Royal Highneſs the Archduke Charles, Field-Marſhal-General of the troops of his Majeſty the Emperor.

"*Head Quarters, Greyſbach, 31ſt April*, 1799.

"I HEREWITH tranſmit to your Royal Highneſs the particulars of an event, which for villany perhaps is not to be equalled in hiſtory, and will even aſtoniſh thoſe who are well acquainted with the heinous crimes of which we are aware our enemy is guilty.

"The three French Plenipotentiaries at the Congreſs at Raſtadt, having received orders from their Government not to depart till the laſt moment, were determined to prolong their ſtay in that city, in ſpite of the repeated entreaties which had been made to them, to quit a place where their preſence had evidently become no longer of any uſe, and where their ſafety might be expoſed amidſt the movements of the army, and, above all, from the hatred the country bore them. Nothing could overcome their obſtinacy, and they continued to weary us with Notes and Proteſtations full of inſolence and calumny, againſt his Majeſty the Emperor, even down to the 24th of this month. I then ſignified to them (agreeable to the orders which I had received from your Royal Highneſs), that they were to quit the territory of the army within 24 hours.

"My letter was ſent to them at ſeven o'clock in the evening. They ſaid that they were ready, and wiſhed to depart at nine. The gates of the city were ſhut, and they were requeſted to remain till the following morning, as it was not altogether ſafe for them to travel by night, over a country covered with armed peaſants, and where the cruelties of the French were too recently impreſſed on their minds to be forgotten. They ſtill preſſed in going. When I found them ſo determined, I offered them an eſcort, which two of them, Roberjot and Bonnier, would have accepted; but the third, Jean Debry, was greatly averſe to it, and was aſtoniſhed at their not rejecting ſuch an offer with diſdain: he even carried his inſolence ſo far as to ſay (in his Republican jargon), that the Ambaſſadors of Liberty were not to be protected by the Soldiers of Deſpotiſm, and he concluded by giving us to underſtand, that an Auſtrian eſcort would inſpire them rather with fear than confidence: ſupported by the Secretary of the French Legation, named Roberſtal,

ſtial, who appeared entirely of the ſame opinion with him, he ſucceeded at laſt in perſuading his colleagues to deſpiſe our advice, and to depart without further delay. Owing to their great impatience to be gone, the gates of the city were opened for them at about ten o'clock, when they ſet out with their ſecretaries, their wives, and a ſufficient number of ſervants; the whole filled five carriages, and they were lighted by ſeveral flambeaux, which their ſervants carried, as it were that their accomplices might be appriſed of their approach. About half an hour after their departure, a detachment of my huſſars ſtationed near the city heard the moſt lamentable cries, which appeared to come from the borders of the Murg, about a quarter of a league diſtance; they immediately repaired thither, and preceived that the five carriages had ſtopped within 50 paces of the Canal, and found the bodies of two of the French Miniſters ſtretched upon the ground (Roberjot and Bonnier), mangled in a moſt horrid manner; one with his ſkull entirely torn away, and the other with his body ripped open. The women were uttering the moſt hideous ſkricks, and the ſervants were in the greateſt conſternation,

"The third Miniſter and the Secretary of the Legation had diſappeared, and the aſſaſſins had had time to make their eſcape; thoſe that remained were brought back to Raſtadt in the carriages, and every friendly aſſiſtance was given to the ſufferers; none of them were wounded, but their diſtreſs was extreme. It was near midnight when the Secretary of the Legation, Roſenſtial, whom they ſuppoſed to have been killed (not having heard any thing of him), returned on foot into the city; he had eſcaped being wounded, and appeared perfectly tranquil; but when interrogated, his anſwers were vague, and he appeared much embarraſſed. He ſaid he did not know how he eſcaped the aſſaſſins, and was totally ignorant of what was become of the Miniſter Jean Debry, who had not as yet made his appearance. We likewiſe examined the domeſtics of Roberjot and Bonnier, but all we could learn from them was, that on approaching the Murg, a party of brigands, to the number of about 30, ruſhed upon them from their ambuſh, well armed, ſeized upon the poſtilions, and forced them to ſtop, upon which Jean Debry immediately got out of the carriage, without the leaſt emotion, and went up to them, crying *I am Jean Debry, Plenipotentiary of the French Republic,* which he repeated many times, upon which the brigands ſeized him, and appeared to give him ſeveral blows, after which they loſt ſight of him, owing to the darkneſs of the night; that his Secretary Balin was likewiſe ſeized on, but they did not hurt him. Theſe men all ſpoke French, and called on Roſenſtial for the papers of the Legation, which he delivered to them, and he then paſſed through them without further moleſtation. That after having thrown thoſe papers into the Murg, thoſe ruffians approached the carriages, in which were the two other Plenipotentiaries; they demanded in a loud voice, and ſtill in French, of the one, if he was Roberjot? and of the other, if he was Bonnier? And, upon their anſwering in the affirmative, they cut them down with their ſabres, and did not leave them until they were certain that they were dead: in ſhort, theſe villains diſappeared juſt as my huſſars were coming up. This is the correct ſtatement of theſe men. All Raſtadt was in an uproar; there was no perſon but was ſhocked at the maſſacre, and every one was loſt in conjectures on an event which did not appear leſs inexplicable than tragical. At ſeven o'clock on the following morning, the 29th, we learnt that Jean Debry had returned, a great mob ran before him, as much from ſentiments of humanity as from curioſity.

"He was overcome with fatigue, having wandered about all the night; his face and hands were ſtained with blood: his dreſs was alſo bloody and in rags; he complained much, pretended he had received more than twenty wounds, and required ſome repoſe. The Count de Goertz conducted him home, and ſent for his own ſurgeon to attend him; Jean Debry did not wiſh to be attended by a profeſſional man, and remonſtrated a long time, by ſaying, he only wanted a little ſleep at that time, and that his wounds ſhould be dreſſed at Straſburgh; but upon the preſſing intreaties of the

Count de Goertz, he complied, but not without a great deal of trouble. When they came to undreſs him, they found he had on a coat and riding coat, the cloth and lining of which was of a moſt extraordinary thickneſs; that out of 50 or 60 cuts, which had fallen on the riding coat, not one had penetrated to his body. He had only received a few braiſes on his back and ſhoulders, and a ſlight ſcratch on his wriſt, which appeared to have been done with caution, and more from a dagger, than from the cut of a ſabre. Neither was there the leaſt appearance of a fever. Jean Debry and Roſenſtial were the very perſons who had the evening before rejected in ſo haughty a manner, the offer of an eſcort, and had inſiſted on the departure taking place during the night; and thoſe alone of the Legation have been ſpared.

"The eagerneſs of Jean Debry to make himſelf known to the aſſaſſins; the confidence with which he threw himſelf into their arms; the caution with which they ſtruck him, without doing him ſcarcely any injury, while, at the ſame time, they tore in pieces his colleagues; the precaution he had taken in protecting his perſon by an extra-quantity of coats and waiſtcoats; in ſhort, every thing ſeemed to coroborate the above ſuſpicion. It is well known, that before the arrival of Jean Debry at Raſtadt, Bonnier and Roberjot were in great eſtimation; that their pacific diſpoſitions had diſpleaſed the French Directory, in conſequence of which they appointed Jean Debry as an inſpector of their conduct; that ſince that time, with the Secretary Roſenſtial, they alone poſſeſſed all the confidence of the Government; had dictated in an imperious manner to the other two Plenipotentiaries, and forced them to ſign all thoſe provoking notes, which expreſſed pretenſions ſo unwarrantable, and which in part has been the cauſe of the continuation of the war. They knew that within a few months, that Roberjot and Bonnier did not diſguiſe the indignation they felt at the part which they had been obliged to act, and they were continually complaining, that what they had done would render the Peace impoſſible. It is indeed a well known fact, that about 15 days before their departure, they had ſaid to Roſenſtial in the heat of argument, that they only waited their return to France, to denounce to the Legiſlative Body the abſurd politics of the Directory, its averſion to all conciliation, and their inſtructions, by which they were ordered always to exact ſomething more than could be complied with, and at all events to force a rupture. This laſt reſolution of theirs appears to have ſealed the fate of theſe two unfortunate men, nor can any other reaſons be given, why the aſſaſſins ſhould have confined their attack to theſe two individuals alone? why they ſhould, if not for fear of miſtake, oblige them to declare their names? why in ſhort, they ſhould have taken ſuch particular care to throw all the papers of the Legation into the Murg, through which the ſecret inſtructions of the French Directory muſt certainly have been diſcovered?

"Theſe various circumſtances leave no doubt upon our minds, as to the real authors of this plot. The compaſſion which was at firſt felt for Jean Debry, while he was conſidered as a victim eſcaped from his butchers, was converted into fury againſt him and his accomplices, after they had moſt maturely conſidered this horrid affair. The cry of horror and indignation was general. Jean Debry knew it, and expreſſed an immediate deſire to depart. He now earneſtly required an eſcort, which was inſtantly granted him, and my huſſars conducted him back the ſame evening to the French advanced poſts, with his wife, his children, his ſecretary, and all thoſe who had accompanied him on his firſt departure, except his two unfortunate colleagues, whoſe remains we have kept, and are preparing to bury with all honour.

"It is not for me to comment upon the relation which I have given to your Royal Highneſs; but if one may be allowed to expreſs what it is impoſſible to avoid feeling, what will be ſaid of a Government equally treacherous to its friends as to its enemies, and that will not heſitate to make even their own agents murder each other, when it is thought neceſſary to ſacrifice them of them to its political intereſt? It is impoſſible to deſcribe the indignation cauſed in this country by this diabo-

cal act. My patroles have not hitherto been able to diſcover any of the murderers, although I have given orders for very ſtrict ſearch to be made in all the environs."

The Copy of a ſecond Letter from Monſieur de Barbaczy, to His Royal Highneſs the Archduke Charles.

"*Head Quarters, Greenſhack, May* 1.

"A Few hours after the departure of the courier laſt night with the diſpatches which I had the honour to ſend, your Royal Highneſs's huſſars brought me two men that the armed peaſants had met with the morning before, about ten o'clock, on the Right Bank of the Rhine, at a ſmall diſtance from Kehl; the peaſants, after purſuing them a long time, took them at laſt a little beyond Wuilſett. They knew them to be Frenchmen, and having a very ſuſpicious appearance, were at firſt for putting them to death; but when they aſſured the peaſants that they were not ſpies, neither were their intentions inimical, for at the moment they were purſued, they were endeavouring to paſs the Rhine, and to return quietly to their own country; but they thought it prudent not to let them go, and therefore brought them to me. To all the queſtions I put to them, they anſwered with great embarraſſment, and I ordered them to be ſearched; they each of them had in a purſe fifty pieces of gold in French coin; and in the pocket of one, a note was found, which I here inſert."

Note found in the pocket of the Priſoners.

"*Raſtadt, 9th Floreal, 8 o'clock at night.*

"We depart hence in an hour—you will ſee us between nine and ten—our carriages will be lighted—Jean will be in the firſt, and I in the fourth with the papers—I recommend to you the third and fifth.

(Signed) "R———-L."

"After having read this note, I found I had got two of the aſſaſſins employed in this execrable plot, the authors of which they ſo juſtly ſuſpected at Raſtadt. I was in hopes to have learnt from them the particulars of this horrid conſpiracy, but all my endeavours have been as yet ineffectual, for they have preſerved ſo obſtinate a ſilence, that although I have even threatened them with death, they ſtill will not divulge one ſyllable. I truſt I have anticipated your Royal Highneſs's deſire, in ſending them to you, that your Royal Highneſs may interrogate them yourſelf, and then judge of their conduct.

"I have this inſtant learnt from ſome deſerters and French priſoners, which are juſt brought in, that Jean Debry, on arriving at Straſburgh, had the baſeneſs and audacity to impute to my huſſars the crime of which he had himſelf been guilty; to the very ſame huſſars that he had made his unfortunate coleagues refuſe as an eſcort, who had run to the cries of the victims, in hopes that they might have been of ſome ſervice to them, who by their conduct teſtified the intereſt they took in behalf of the unfortunate widows and all their ſuite, and, in ſhort the very ſame that had conducted him in ſafety to the banks of Rhine. This new piece of villainy proves to me, that this diabolical Directory had two objects in view: firſt, in ſacrificing thoſe two Miniſters, they at once got rid of two individuals who where too well acquainted with their late proceedings; and ſecondly, were in hopes of having an opportunity of calumniating the victorious troops of his Imperial Majeſty. Happily the enormity of the crime has diſcovered itſelf; for what motive could it be ſuppoſed my huſſars had to be induced to commit ſuch a murder? It could not be from their hatred to the French, ſince, out of fifteen that the five carriages contained, they ſuffered thirteen to live, and confined their fury to thoſe two in particular. Neither could it be from an intention to plunder, ſince they did not touch either their gold or ſilver, or their jewels, but only ſeized upon the papers. Will it be ſaid, that they acted by order of their ſuperiors, who wiſhed to ſecure the papers of the Legation? If ſo, why ſhould theſe very papers be thrown into the Murg? Was any thing ever worſe concerted? Do we not diſcover in theſe the authors of the murder of one of their officers named Duffat, who was killed at Rome, and which crime was then imputed to the Miniſters of the Pope? The ſame who ordered the maſſacre of the ſick in

the hoſpital of Verona, and charged the Senate of Venice with the butchery? Their villany is well known—all Europe has experienced their treachery, and Heaven itſelf ſeems ready to denounce its vengeance againſt them.

"I am your Royal Highneſs's &c.

(Signed) "BARBACZY, Colonel.

"P. S. At the inſtant I was diſpatching a courier with this letter to your Royal Highneſs, a detachment of my huſſars have brought in ten more Frenchmen, who were ſeen at the entrance of the Black Foreſt, and after making ſome reſiſtance by firing a few muſquet ſhot, ſurrendered themſelves priſoners. They have confeſſed that they were ſent for from Straſburgh about eight days ago, with others to the number of 27, to perpetrate this deed, but were not made acquainted with the time for executing it until late in the evening of the 28th of April. They mentioned many other circumſtances, which your Royal Highneſs will hear more fully from their own mouths. I have ſent them under a ſtrong eſcort, accompanied by the other two priſoners. My huſſars ſhall not reſt a moment till they have diſcovered the reſt of the banditti."

MONTHLY REGISTER.

GAZETTE INTELLIGENCE.

Downing Street, Nov. 23.

A letter, of which the following is a copy, has been received by Lieutenant-Colonel the Hon. Alexander Hope, Deputy-Adjutant-General to the army lately ſerving in Holland, from Lieutenant-General Sir James Pulteney, Bart. and, by order of His Royal Highneſs the Commander in Chief, tranſmitted by him to the Right Hon. Henry Dundas.

SIR, *Swan cutter, at ſea, Nov. 20.*

I have from time to time reported to you, for the information of His Royal Highneſs the Commander in Chief, the progreſs which had been made in the embarkation and departure of the Britiſh and Ruſſian troops which were left under my command, in the province of North Holland; and I am now happy to acquaint you, that the laſt of them embarked yeſterday morning, when the wind being fair, the whole of the ſhips of war, and tranſports remaining in the Texel, left that port.

Every thing belonging to the army was brought off except a ſmall proportion of damaged proviſions, a few waggons, and about three hundred draught horſes of little value, for which there was no tonnage; of theſe the latter alone were ſaleable, but they bore ſo ſmall a price, that I thought it better to diſtribute the whole to the magiſtrates of the the different villages in and near which the army had been cantoned, to be delivered to any of the inhabitants who might have ſuffered from the inevitable conſequences of war.

Several large Dutch Indiamen and other ſhips, which it was impoſſible for us to remove in their preſent ſtate, but which might have been fitted out as ſhips of war by the enemy, were completely diſabled and rendered uſeleſs for any further purpoſe, through the exertions of a detachment of ſeamen, under the direction of Captain Bovar. The deſire of complying moſt ſtrictly with the articles of agreement entered into between his His Royal Highneſs and General Brune, prevented their being blown up, which could not have been done without endangering the navigation of the Nieuve Diep.

Vice-Admiral Dickſon, as well as myſelf, made it our ſtudy to comply in this, as in every other inſtance, with the articles of agreement, and I muſt do the French General the juſtice to ſay, that he ſeemed actuated by the ſame ſpirit.

Previous to quitting the Helder, I had, in obedience to His Royal Highneſs's inſtructions, diſcharged every juſt demand of the inhabitants of the country which has been occupied by the army; and I was happy to find that very few claims were brought forward

ward beyond thoſe which it was in my power to ſatisfy.

The embarkation of the troops, difficult from the multiplicity of the arrangements required, and ſometimes arduous from the ſtate of the weather, was carried on with the utmoſt zeal and activity by Vice-Admiral Dickſon, and the officers and ſeamen under his command. I feel particularly indebted to Captain Lawford of his Majeſty's ſhip Romney, who was left on ſhore, and had the immediate direction of the embarkation, for his exertions and attention to every branch of his Majeſty's ſervice, and to Captain Woodriffe, principal agent for the tranſport ſervice, for his great zeal in the execution of the duties of that ſituation. I have the honour to be, &c.

JAMES PULTENEY.

The Hon. Colonel Hope, Adjutant-General, &c.

P. S. Three armed veſſels have been left to cruize off the Texel, to give warning to any Britiſh ſhips of our having evacuated the port.

It was agreed by the French General, that if any ſhould arrive previous to the expiration of the month, they ſhould, as a matter of courſe, be allowed to depart.

Downing-Street, Dec. 13.

A diſpatch, of which the following is a copy, has this day been received from the Rigt Hon. Lord William Bentinck, by the Right Hon. Lord Grenville.

Head-quarters, Morozzo, Nov. 14.

MY LORD,

It gives me great ſatisfaction to be able to ſtate to your Lordſhip, that it is the determination of the Commander in Chief to undertake immediately the ſiege of Coni, and puſh it on with all poſſible vigour. This reſolution has been adopted in conſequence of the events which have taken place ſince the battle of the 4th, and which prove the defeat of the enemy on that day to have been moſt complete. The priſoners taken on the 4th and 5th amount to four thouſand three hundred, which number is much greater than was at firſt ſuppoſed. The Auſtrians loſt two thouſand in killed and wounded. On the 11th the diviſion of General Ott attacked that part of the enemy which remained at Borgo Saint Dalmazzo, and drove them as far as Robillante. On the ſame day Major-General Somaſiva purſued the French in the Valley of the Stura as far as Demonte, of which he took poſſeſſion, and made one hundred priſoners. Major-General Gottersheim alſo obliged the French to evacuate the villages of La Chuſa, Boves, and Poveragna. General Championet had aſſembled his whole force at Mondovi, and upon the mountains behind the river Ellero, as far as Monaſterlo. As long as he occupied this poſition, it was impoſſible to undertake the ſiege of Coni. General Melas therefore gave orders that a general attack ſhould be made on the 13th. A letter from Championet to Saint Cyr had been intercepted, which ſhowed that the latter was not able to purſue the advantage which he had gained over Gen. Kray in the laſt action which I had the honour of ſtating to your Lordſhip. For this reaſon the diviſion of General Metrowſki, which had marched as far as Cheraſco, for the purpoſe of reinforcing General Kray, was ordered to return to the camp of the Trinita on the 12th, and to form the left of the attack on the town of Mondovi. The remainder of the army marched in two columns. The one, by La Chuſa, upon Monaſterlo; the other, by Villa Nova, upon the centre of the enemy's line. From the difficulties of the roads the attacks were not made till very late, and the enemy, without making much reſiſtance, abandoned all his poſitions. The people of Mondovi opened the gates of the Lower Town to the Auſtrians. The French army retired to Vico, and evacuated the citadel of Mondovi in the night.

General Championet is retreating towards Ormia, and Major-General Bellegarde is ſent with a conſiderable corps in his purſuit. The Auſtrian army marches this day to Beinette, and will to-morrow take up the neceſſary poſitions to cover the ſiege. I never yet have ſeen inveteracy and deteſtation of the French ſo general, and carried to ſuch length as it is here; the whole people are armed, and, headed by a prieſt, perform the moſt wonderful exploits. In the beginning of the campaign they took both Ceva

and

and Mondovi from the French; and, in the action of yesterday, a body of fifteen thousand prevented a very strong column of the enemy from marching by a particular road; the country, being mountainous, it is peculiarly favourable to their irregular mode of fighting. The siege will begin in the course of ten days.

I have honour to be, &c.

W. Bentinck.

Downing Street, Nov. 28.

Dispatches, of which the following are copies, have been received this day from the Right Hon. Lord William Bentinck by the Righ Hon. Lord Grenville.

Head-quarters, Montenanx, Oct. 26.

My Lord,

I have the honour to inform your Lordship, that a report was this morning received by General Melas from General Karaczai (who commanded a corps of six thousand men near Novi to observe the chief debouche from Genoa), stating that he had been attacked by very superior numbers of the enemy, and, after a very severe engagement, had been obliged to retire with considerable loss to Alexandria, where he had taken up a position behind the Bormida. General Kray marched this morning with a considerable reinforcement, and I hope will arrive time enough to prevent the enemy from making any further progress. A resolution has been taken on the part of the Commander in Chief, immediately to embody the Piedmontese army; these troops are to be placed in every respect upon their antient footing; they are to take the oath of fidelity to the King of Sardinia only; and are in no manner whatever to be made subject to Austrian discipline. The Piedmontese troops that are employed have behaved upon all occasions in the most gallant and honourable manner. Vast numbers of deserters come in daily, who all describe the distress of the enemy, for want of provisions, to be extreme.

I have the honour to be, &c.

W. Bentinck.

Head-quarters, Centalo, Nov. 6.

My Lord,

In my last letter I had the honour of acquainting your Lordship, that in consequence of information having been received that a large detachment of the enemy was coming from the side of Savoy, the army made a movement to its right. The French having taken Pignerol and Susa, and having advanced to Salucco, threatening our communication with Turin, General Melas thought it necessary to march still farther to his right; and a camp was chosen between Bra and Fussano. These operations, when connected with the system of defence only, upon which this army had so long been acting, deceived the French into a belief that the Austrians were in full retreat. The evacuation of Mondovi, which was determined upon for the purpose of adding a very considerable force to the army, confirmed this opinion. Elated with these hopes, they advanced upon all points, and on the 3d took possession of Savigliano.

On the 4th the enemy marched in three columns to attack the Austrian army. The first column marched to the attack of Fossano, which had been put in a state of defence, and was occupied by a considerable garrison. It happened that the Austrian army moved with the same intent, at the same time, and in the same number of columns, and upon the same roads. Lieutenant-General Ott commanded the right column, Lieutenant-General Elsnitz the centre, and Major-General Gottersheim the left.—The two armies met at Marenne and Genola. It was not till after a very severe engagement that General Ott obliged the enemy to fall back from Marenne; a part retired to Genola, and a part to Savigliano. General Ott pursued the enemy to the latter place, where he took three cannon and above one thousand prisoners. The column of General Elsnitz, that was destined for the attack of Genola, met with a much more formidable resistance. The action lasted for several hours, and it was not till the arrival of the column of General Ott from Savigliano upon the rear of the French, that victory declared in favour of the Austrians. The two columns went immediately in pursuit of the enemy: General Ott by Faletta, General Elsnitz by Valdigi. The army haulted at night at Centalo. The column of General Gottersheim repulsed the

the French from Fuſſano to Murazzo. It will appear ſurpriſing, that while our army was at Centalo, a diviſion of the French army remained between Murazzo and Ronchi, with the Stura in their rear, over which there was no bridge.

Early in the morning of the 5th, the army marched in two columns to Ronchi and Murazzo. The enemy, ſurpriſed, made no reſiſtance, and two hundred priſoners were taken without any loſs. It appears that the French army was completely defeated, and that this diviſion was left there without orders. The Auſtrians have made in the two days above 3000 priſoners. The army being extremely fatigued remained at Ronchi; but this morning General Melas having determined to follow up his ſucceſs with the greateſt vigour, the army marched in two columns; one upon the entrenched camp of the Madona del Almo, and the other upon Caſaglia; the enemy retreated every where upon our approach; it is reported that the French are retiring over the mountains.

It is impoſſible to do juſtice to the valour and perſeverance of the Auſtrian army. The operations of the army, prior and ſubſequent to this affair, when conſidered in a military point of view, entitle the Commander in Chief to the admiration of the whole world.

Accounts were received yeſterday from General Kray, that he had attacked the enemy near Aleſſandria, had obliged them to retire to Pozzolo Formigolo, with the loſs of 1000 priſoners.

I have the honour to be, &c.

W. Bentinck.

(*End of the Gazettes*).

FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

SEAT OF WAR.

From the intelligence received from Lord William Bentinck, given under the head of Gazettes, p. 849. 50. it appears, that the Auſtrians have gained ſome conſiderable advantages ſince the Ruſſians in Italy. The failure of ſucceſs of the allied armies in Switzerland, and the intended return of the Ruſſian forces to Peterſburgh, has cauſed conſiderable ſpeculation. The Court of Vienna, it would ſeem, were not at all acquainted with the condition of Maſſena's army, nor with their numbers, elſe the Archduke would not ſurely have been ordered to another quarter. Their aim ſeems to have been, to get poſſeſſion of the ſtrong poſts upon the Upper Rhine, not in the name of the Allies, but of the Emperor. Suwarrow was not appriſed of this; but, agreeably to previous conſert, gallantly quitted his poſition, and marched over St Gothard, to ſupport the armies in Switzerland. The details of this moſt arduous and extraordinary, but ill fated movement, has been publiſhed from authentic ſources, and is as follows:

"*Ruſſian Head-quarters at Bregenz, Oct.* 30.

"Soon after the capture of Tortona, on the 11th of September, our army began its march. Without baggage, we paſſed through Aleſſandria, Caſal, Novarre, and Saverne; in the laſt of which we waited its arrival. Thence we marched to Bellingona and Airolo, on the Alps, aſcended Mount St Gothard; from whence we drove the enemy's numerous poſts as far as Hoſpital.

"Meanwhile, the grand Auſtrian army had quitted Switzerland, whoſe poſitions were afterwards occupied by the Ruſſian General Korſakof, with a corps by far inferior in number, to maintain a diſtrict of 17 German miles, the centre of which was Zurich, againſt a ſuperior force. We were informed of this event when we had already advanced into the Valley of Mutten, having expelled the enemy from a paſs cut through the rocks near Urſeren, driven him alſo from the Devil's Bridge, after an obſtinate reſiſtance, and forced him to retreat as far as Altdorf.

"Upon this it was inſtantly reſolved to take the neceſſary meaſures for the recovery of our army, which was in want of the moſt neceſſary articles, and nearly exhauſted by a campaign as difficult as it had been bloody. The advanced guard immediately began its march againſt Glarus; but the rear fell in with General Maſſena, who had advanced from Swyz with 10,000 men General Roſenberg, with 3000 Ruſſians, immediately attacked him; the

enemy

enemy was turned, and driven back as far as Swyz, with the loſs of upwards of 2000 men in killed and wounded.—Quarter-maſter General Lacour, two Chiefs of Brigade, ten officers, and 1212 privates were made priſoners, and ſeven pieces of cannon taken.

"Prince Bagrathian, ſupported by General Oerfelden, ſuddenly attacked, with his advanced guard, the enemy under General Moliton, whom he put to flight with the loſs of 1000 men, made priſoners a Chief of Brigade, ſeven officers, and 347 privates, and took two pieces of cannon and a ſtandard.

"Surrounded by the enemy, amidſt rain and froſt, we purſued our march through narrow, almoſt impenetrable footſteps, often man by man, over dreadful cliffs, with the clouds beneath our feet. On the mountain in the Griſon country, called Rindſkof, entirely covered with ſnow, we had for the whole day the greateſt obſtacles to ſurmount.

"We were without bread; the beaſts carrying our baggage remained behind; during the whole time we had only potatoes for our food: And night and day we were almoſt conſtantly engaged with the enemy, till at laſt we arrived at Chur.

"From Mount St Gothard, the enemy loſt, in the whole, in killed, General Legourier, upwards of 4000 men, and a great number of officers; in priſoners, a General, three Chiefs of Brigade, 20 officers, upwards of 2000 men, 11 pieces of cannon, a mortar, and a ſtandard; beſides theſe, 1000 men fell into the hands of the Auſtrians. Our loſs in killed and wounded amounts to about 1500 men.

"From Chur we proceeded, by way of Feldkirch and Dornbirn, to this place, from whence we are ſhortly to go into cantonments between Iller and the Lech."

The St Peterſburgh Court Gazette, 21ſt November, contains the following official account from Lieutenant General Rimſkoi Korſakow, of the battles in Switzerland on the 25th and 26th of September:

Skaffhauſen October 1.

"In conſequence of the plan of the Field-Marſhal General, Prince Italiſkoi, Count Suwarrow Rimnikſkoi, to make a general attack upon the enemy in Switzerland, I was ordered to detach 5000 men to General Hotze, to reinforce his corps. The day after I had ſent off that corps from my troops of reſerve (the 25th of September), the enemy began, at five in the morning, to throw a bridge acroſs the Limmat, near the convent of Farr, three leagues diſtance from Zurich, and at the ſame time commenced a vigorous attack on the left of Zurich, near the village of Walliſhofen, and on our principal poſition before Zurich. Near the village of Walliſhofen, after a bloody action of three hours, the enemy was not only repulſed by Lieutenant General Prince Gortſchakow, but was alſo driven from his principal poſition on Mount Albis, of which our troops had actually taken poſſeſſion. He was likewiſe repulſed before Zurich, after a dreadful battle of ten hours; but on our right wing, conſiſting of eight battalions under the command of Lieutenant General Duraſſow and Major General Morkow, with 16 field pieces, and 10 ſquadrons, he had ſucceeded in finiſhing the bridge acroſs the Limmat. Lieutenant General Duraſſow was deceived by the enemy's pretending to have an intention of croſſing the Limmat in another quarter, and thus loſt time to join General Morkow in the point where they actually croſſed that river. The enemy, on that account did not meet with ſufficient reſiſtance here; the above detachment ought, however, to have followed the enemy after he had actually croſſed the bridge, which would have brought him between two fires; but, inſtead of doing this, it withdrew to the oppoſite ſide. Unfortunately, Major General Morkow was wounded ſoon after the enemy had croſſed the river, which afforded them an opportunity to take me in the rear, when the bloodieſt battle that can be imagined enſued, which continued for thirteen hours. The enemy's force conſiſted of nearly 40,000 men; I had only 10,000, having ſent 5000 to reenforce General Hotze, and unable to join the corps under Lieutenant General Duraſſow. Owing to this diſparity of forces, and your Majeſty's troops obſtinately refuſing to give way to the enemy, the loſs was extremely great on our ſide. At length we alſo ſucceeded

ceeded in this third attack, to repulſe the enemy a league beyond the town; but he poſted himſelf behind Zurich, and thus cut off every communication in my rear.

" At the ſame time I received intelligence that the Auſtrian corps near Utznach had been defeated, General Hotze killed, and the enemy advancing againſt me from that quarter, *ſo that I was ſurrounded from every ſide.* Thus ſituated, the enemy's General made degrading propoſals to me, which the honour of your Majeſty's arms obliged me to refuſe; I would not ſuffer the French Colonel who had been ſent to me, to depart before the end of the following day, being reſolved to renew the attack at day-break, and to fight my way through, in ſpite of the enemy's ſuperiority and his entrenchments. This I could only effect with great loſs, being oppoſed by an enemy ſuperior in number, and ſtrengthened by nature and entrenchments, till I had advanced to Egliſau, where I halted, taking a poſition on the right bank of the Rhine, my right wing joining the detachment under the Auſtrian Major-General Kienmayer, my left extending through Schaffhauſen to the lake of Conſtance. As ſoon as I ſhall learn the poſition of the Field-Marſhal (for at preſent all communication between him and myſelf is cut off), I ſhall advance again to act in concert with him.

" I cannot give your Majeſty an exact ſtatement of our loſs, but I *ſuppoſe*, that in the courſe of two days we had *about* 3000 killed and wounded. *Our field artillery is entirely carried off.* Generals Sacken, Lokoſhin, and Morkow, being ſeverely wounded, had not ſtrength ſufficient to leave Zurich, where they remained, as well as ſome privates, and I have written to the enemy's General that he ſhould not conſider them as priſoners of war. The Generals, ſtaff, and ſuperior officers have acequired great honour on both days of the battle; they were always in front of the troops, for which reaſon more of them were killed and wounded, in proportion, than privates. Their names, as well as an accurate ſtatement of our loſs in privates, I ſhall ſoon have the honour of tranſmitting to your Majeſty. (Signed)

" Rimiskoi Korsakof, L. G."

A letter from Championet to St Cyr has been intercepted, which ſhewed that the latter had not been able to purſue the advantages which he had gained over General Kray in the laſt action. For this reaſon an attack was ordered to be made upon the town of Mondovi, the people of which opened the gates of the lower town of the Auſtrians. The French army retired to Vico, and evacuated the city of Mondovi in the night.

General Championet was retreating towards Ormia; and Major General Bellegarde was ſent with a conſiderable corps in his purſuit. The Auſtrian army was to march on the 14th to Beinette, and the next day to take up the neceſſary poſitions to cover the ſiege. Lord Bentinck ſays, " he had never ſeen inveteracy and deteſtation of the French ſo general, or carried to ſuch lengths, as it was here; the whole people were armed; and, headed by a prieſt, performed the moſt wonderful exploits. In the beginning of the campaign they took both Ceva and Mondovi from the French; and in the action of the 13th, a body of 15,000 prevented a very ſtrong column of the enemy from marching by a particular road."

An armiſtice on the Rhine was requeſted by the French, but refuſed by the Archduke Charles. However, the operations in that quarter have on the whole been rather favourable to the French. On the 16th of November, the Republican forces under General Lecourbe, attacked the whole line of the Imperialiſts, from Neckargemund as far as Langenbrucken. General Ney made only a faint attack; but that on the poſition of the Auſtrians near Bretten, behind Bruchſal, was more ſerious. The French ſurrounded a whole battalion of Imperialiſts, part of whom they made priſoners. The poſts of Philipſburg were either driven into the fortreſs, or made priſoners. That place was immediately blockaded, and the French army advanced at all points, and on the 17th of November extended to Sinsheim and Bruchſal.

The French evacuated the Griſon Country about the 12th of November, of their own accord, upon which the Auſtrians repoſſeſſed themſelves of the whole diſtrict on this ſide the Rhine, as far as Haltz, which they had quit-

ted on the 31ſt of October. The movements made by General Dedowich, near Bellinzono, againſt Mount St Gotthard, and a want of proviſions, are ſaid to have induced the French to quit the Griſon country.

SWITZERLAND.

It appears from Zurich that the Helvetic Directory, finding itſelf embrrraſſed by its refuſal to contribute to the loan demanded by General Maſſena, ſent Citizen Jenner to him, to propoſe "the ſum of two millions of Francs, for which the French Government ſhould find *bonds* in payment of the duties impoſed on the importation of the Helvetic merchandizes." General Maſſena agreed to tranſmit the propoſition to the Government of France.

FRANCE.

We noticed in our laſt, the total overthrow of the French Conſtitution, of the third year of the republic. It is generally ſuppoſed that another conſtitution will be ſpeedily preſented to the people for their acceptance; and if a late celebrated writer * may be credited, there is an ample ſtore ready provided for that purpoſe. "Abbe Sieyes," ſays he, "has whole neſts of pigeon-holes full of conſtitutions ready made, ticketed, ſorted, and numbered, ſuited to every ſeaſon and fancy; ſome with the top of the pattern at the bottom, and ſome with the bottom at the top; ſome plain, ſome flowered, ſome diſtinguiſhed for their ſimplicity; others for their complexity; ſome of blood colour; ſome of *boue de Paris*; ſome with directories; others without a direction; ſome with councils of elders, and councils of youngſters; ſome without any council at all."

The conſuls ſoon after this violation of the conſtitution, proceeded to a violation of all law and juſtice by their ſole authority, without any communication with the ſhapeleſs ſkeleton of the two councils; they iſſued on the 17th of November a decree for the tranſportation of thirty-ſeven individuals to Guiana, and twenty-two to be impriſoned in the commune of Rochelle.

A few days after they had paſſed this execrable decree, however, the conſulate we find were induced either by a ſenſe of policy, or of remorſe, to reconſider their unjuſtifiable ſtep, and at length to repeal it.

The miniſter of juſtice made a report to the conſuls on the accounts he had received of the promulgation of the law of the 18th Brumaire; and on the following day—He ſtated "that thoſe two acts of the legiſlative power had been received every where with that ſatisfaction they were calculated to inſpire, and that, with the exception of a few diſſaffected or prejudiced minds, the immenſe majority of the French people viewed, in the changes which had been affected, nothing but the ſalvation of the republic, the happy preſage of the deſtinies which that great event prepared for it—that the faction which was deſirous to create an *imperium in imperio* no longer exiſted—the men who were miſled had voluntarily abjured their errors and the public confidence ſurrounding the Conſulate with all the efficiency of its means, it was no longer neceſſary for the preſervation of public tranquillity to do more than keep a vigilant eye over thoſe individuals, who by more energetic meaſures were prevented from diſtributing it." In accord with theſe ſentiments, the miniſter of juſtice propoſed the following decree:

"That the individuals, who, agreeably to the arrete of the 26th of Brumaire, were called upon to quit the continental territory of the Republic, and thoſe who were ordered to repair to the department of Lower Charente, are placed under the vigilance of the miniſter of police. They ſhall repair to the communes to be pointed out by that miniſter, where they ſhall remain till otherwiſe directed.'

On the 17th of November, Arnould (de la Seine) in the committee of the Council of Five Hundred preſented a plan of a reſolution upon the meſſage of the conſuls, received the day before, relative to the renters. It imported that a loan ſhould be opened for 39,000,000 franks for the national treaſury, to pay the rents and penſions for the laſt ſemeſtre of the 7th year. On the next day he brought forward the detailed plan of his reſolution, reſpecting the payment of the annuities of the laſt half year of the 7th year, and both theſe plans were adopted.

On

* Mr Burke's Letter on the Duke of Bedford in 1796. Page 63.

On the 26th of November, Buonaparte had a meeting, at his apartment, of the bankers and principal merchants of Paris, to the number of above ſeventy.

He addreſſed them in an extemporaneous ſpeech, in which he pointed out the urgent wants under which the government laboured, and inſiſted on the claims which he ought to have, and which had already been obtained on the public confidence: and threw out hints of the ſpeedy rerurn of a glorious and equitable peace. He alſo aſſured them that the reign of robbers and plunderers was no more; that thoſe who had property ſhould no longer be deſpoiled by thoſe who had none; that intrigue ſhould no longer ſupply the place of talent and learning; but that, in order to accompliſh the ſalutary objects he had alluded to, the public treaſury was under the neceſſity of calling on commercial men for an advance of money, till ſuch time as the new contributions ſhould come in. In conſequence of this addreſs, the bankers and principal merchants immediately voted, by acclamation, a loan of twelve millions of livres, which was inſtantly filled up, and a commiſſion of ſeven was appointed to put the plan into execution.

The Miniſter of General Police, on the 29th of November, made a report to the conſuls, relative to the baniſhed prieſts.

This report ſtated, "that undoubtedly there was a great number of prieſts dangerous diſturbers, whom authority muſt watch with unceaſing vigilance, and ſometimes puniſh; but there was alſo among them men of peaceable diſpoſitions, and obedient to the laws, who would have ſerved the republic, if they had not, by ſome oppreſſive meaſures, been compelled to emigrate." In conſequence of this report, the conſuls paſſed the following decree: "Thoſe who have taken all the oaths preſcribed by the law for miniſters of worſhip, and at the periods of time which the laws require, and alſo thoſe who have married, and are now actually detained, whether at the Iſle of Rhe orOleron, ſhall be ſet at liberty, after proving their right to one of the above exceptions before the municipal adminiſtration in the diſtrict from whence they come. Thoſe who ſeek to deliver themſelves from deportation ſhall juſtify their claims to this diſpenſation, before the central adminiſtration of their departments."

This decree repeals all the articles of the Executive Directory, ſingular and collective, relative to the 24th article of the law of the 19th Fructidor of the 5th year.

The commiſſion of the Council of Five Hundred, on the 5th of December, received a meſſage from the Conſuls, propoſing to open a credit of fifteen millions to the Miniſter at War for the pay of the army of the Eaſt, which was ſanctioned.

General Moreau in the beginning of December left Paris, to take the command of the army of the Rhine; and General Maſſena was on the point of leaving Zurich, to ſucceed to the command in Italy.

In the beginning of December General Hedonville concluded a ſuſpenſion of arms with the Chouans on the right and left banks of the Loire. Notwithſtanding this ſuſpenſion of arms, it has ſince been reported, that the Royaliſts are yet in conſiderable force, and that about the beginning of December they had taken the Iſland of Noirmontier, at the mouth of the Loire, and that they had been furniſhed with arms and ammunition by four frigates, which had been ſent by the Britiſh Government for that purpoſe.

CHINA.

Intelligence from China, dated the 5th of March, mentions the death of the Emperor Kien Long; in conſequence of which a general mourning had been ordered throughout the empire for twelve months. The royal authority devolves to his ſon Kien Hing, who has reigned nominally for upwards of two years paſt. The Chineſe are conſequently all in white, and remain, we believe, with unſhaven heads and beards, for ſix months out of the twelve.

The over-land diſpatches contain the articles of partition reſpecting the territories of the Sultan Tippoo, by which the Britiſh Empire in the Eaſt acquires a conſiderable extent of dominion, with the important fortreſs of *Seringapatam* and its adjacent dependencies. The remainder of Tippoo's territories have been divided between young Raja

Oodivaver, the Nabob Nizam, and the Nabob Wuddiar, our allies.

LONDON.

Dec. 4. Six waggons loaded with part of the treasure taken in the two Spanish frigates, reached the Bank from Plymouth. At nine o'clock the waggons arrived at Kensington, where they were met by a Captain's guard of the grenadier battalion of the Guards, and the procession moved along Piccadilly, St James's Street, Pall Mall, the Strand, Fleet-street, and Cheapside. When the cavalcade reached the mansion house, the Lord Mayor, the Lady Mayoress, Capt. Young, &c. came in front of the house, and drank out of a golden cup "Success to the British Navy," the band playing Rule Britannia, while the honest tars, who were regaled at the same time, gave his Lordship three cheers.

6. A numerous meeting took place at the London Tavern, for the purpose of alleviating the wants of the industrious poor. Mr Devaynes, being called to the chair, recommended an extension of the plan commenced with so good effect in 1795. Mr W. Forster entered largely into the benefits that had resulted from that subscription, and stated that in the months ending the 27th of last April, 40,000 persons had been relieved by 750,918 meals from the soup shops, at an aggregate expence of 2,476l. 8s. 10d. and concluded by moving resolutions to extend the meritorious establishment. A subscription then took place, and a Committee of 35 persons was appointed to conduct the same.

EDINBURGH.

Dec. 2. Saturday being St Andrew's Day, the tutelar Saint of Scotland, the masters and office bearers of the different lodges of the ancient and most honourable fraternity of free and accepted masons, accompanied by proxies and deputations from the lodges in the more distant parts, assembled in the New Church Aile, and proceeded to elect their grand officers. There was no procession.

There are now no less than 150 houses building in the city and suburbs of Glasgow, and a number nearly equal has, we are told, been built annually during the last ten years;—supposing each house to contain three families, of five people (which is thought a low computation), Glasgow must have received, in that short period, an increase of 1500 houses, and 22,500 inhabitants!

Amongst various liberal and well concerted plans for the relief of the poor, the concerts in the New Assembly Rooms have not been the least productive. The assemblage of ladies and gentlemen has been repeatedly extremely genteel and numerous, and they were highly gratified by the performance of the North York band, and of the Russian band, who executed some fine and novel pieces of music. Some beautiful Russian songs were also sung with great applause. At the concert on the 10th, where the Russians also assisted, the company was still more numerous, and the collection yielded 46l. 6d.—The exhibition at Mr Boaz's, the same evening, afforded 21l.

The Directors of the Bank of Scotland, and the Directors of the Royal Bank of Scotland, with their usual spirit and liberality, have agreed to lend the City of Edinburgh *twenty thousand pounds* (ten thousand pounds each) to enable the Magistrates to execute, without delay, the wet docks of Leith. The enlargement of that harbour has long been a favourite object with the public, and in all probability will lay a foundation for making Leith, from its advantageous situation, one of the principal commercial ports in the kingdom.

On Thursday night about half past seven o'clock, a most alarming fire broke out on board the Union Packet. By the united and unremitting exertions of all present, the fire, which, in its commencement and attendant consequences, was so truly alarming, was effectually got under about nine o'clock without damaging any other ship.

26. This morning about 7 o'clock an alarming fire broke out in the coach and timber yard of Mr Kesson, at the head of Leith Walk. The flames had got to so considerable a height before they were discovered, that to save any part of the coach-yard was impossible. Every effort was therefore directed to preserve the adjoining houses in James's Street, and the Terrace.

A letter from Thurso, dated December 14. says, "We have been favour-

with a better harveſt in compariſon of others, for which a public thankſgiving is appointed for next week."

31. On Monday laſt, a young lad, by profeſſion a painter, while ſkaiting on Duddingſton Loch, fell in and was drowned.

HIGH COURT OF JUSTICIARY.

Dec. 2. This day came on the trial of *David Hunter*, labourer at Bonnyrigg, pariſh of Cockpen, and county of Edinburgh, indicted at the inſtance of his Majeſty's Advocate, for murder. The libel ſtates, that he having conceived a groundleſs malice againſt the now deceaſed Ann Blackie, widow of the deceaſed William Forſyth, upon the evening of Thurſday the 14th of June laſt, having met with the ſaid deceaſed Ann Blackie, at or near her own houſe in the village of Bonnyrigg, did, without any provocation on her part, wickedly and feloniouſly bereave of life and murder the ſaid Ann Blackie, by diſcharging at her the contents of a loaded gun then in his poſſeſſion, and ſhe did, in conſequence of the wound ſo received, immediately, or ſoon thereafter, expire, &c.—The counſel for the pannel pled inſanity; and the Court adjourned till a future day, to give them an opportunity to bring forward their evidence.

9. This day came on the trial of *Andrew Holmes*, accuſed of breaking into the ſhop of Philip Taylor, ſpirit dealer, Lawnmarket, and ſtealing from thence 70l. in caſh and notes; of breaking into the ſhop of Alexander Livingſton, grocer, Croſscauſeway, on or about the night between the 13th and 14th of May laſt, and ſtealing from thence upwards of 15l. in copper money; and of breaking into the ſhop of Mrs Spottiſwoode, in the Graſsmarket, and ſtealing from thence ſome ſnuff-boxes, and ſeveral parcels of razors.

The firſt witneſs called for the proſecution was *Philip Taylor*, ſpirit dealer, who ſwore that his ſhop in the Lawnmarket was broke into late on Saturday night, the 9th, or early on Sunday morning, the 10th of March laſt, from the back area, by a window which looks into James's Court, which he did not diſcover till the Sunday forenoon, when he went to fetch a pair of gloves he had left in the ſhop. The window by which the thieves had entered was ſecured by a croſs bar, which was broken off. On the Sunday he entered the ſhop by the ſtreet door, and found things in much diſorder; an attempt had been made to burn a middle door between the fore and back ſhop, but that not ſucceeding, it had been burſt open. His deſk contained 60l. in notes and gold, and the money carried off amounted in all to about 70l. He found a lady's cap and ſome falſe hair in the ſhop, which he identified, and a ſmall penknife.

Miſs Grace Stewart, milliner in Edinburgh, ſaid, in March laſt, on a Saturday night, ſhe was returning from the Theatre, and in coming along the North Bridge, near Mr Izett's ſhop, ſhe was met by three riotous young men, who pulled off her bonnet, and the handkerchief over it, and ran away with them. Some days after, having ſeen ſome hand-bills reſpecting the robbery of Taylor's ſhop, and knowing the head-dreſs from the deſcription to be her own, ſhe went to the ſhop, where ſhe ſaw her bonnet and handkerchief. She identified them in Court.

James Hiſlop, drummer, in the 1ſt regiment of Royal Edinburgh Volunteers, was next called. It was objected to this witneſs, that he was not more than 13 years and 10 months old. The Court repelled the objection. He depoſed, that on a Saturday night, about 7 or 8 months ago, he met the pannel and another, with whom he ſpent the remainder of the night in a public houſe till 11 or 12 o'clock, when it was propoſed to break Taylor's ſhop in the Lawnmarket; that they went to the back window in James's Court which they forced open. Having bought a candle and got it lighted, they helped one another into the ſhop, where they found a good deal of money in a deſk and a drawer, and ſome five ſhillings notes—the half of one of which the witneſs received which he afterwards dropt in the Caſtlehill near where his mother lives, being afraid to keep it. He got 7l. for his ſhare, which he hid at Todd's old tan-works and never got it again. He had that night taken off a woman's bonnet on the North Bridge which he left in the ſhop—ſaw Robert Currie the next day, who told him that Taylor's ſhop had been broken, that he knew by whom, and that if they did not give him a ſhare, he would in-

form

form the Magiſtrates—witneſs gave him a note which he had kept.

Robert Currie was next examined, but being guilty of groſs prevarication, he was committed to priſon.

Mr Livingſtone, grocer, Croſcauſeway, ſaid his ſhop was broken into by the back window, which is nearly level with the ground. He was informed of it by Stevenſon, one of his people. About 15l. moſtly copper, was carried off, and two bad dollars. His watch-dog died two days after: ſuppoſes him to have been poiſoned.

George Stevenſon and *George Lawrie*, ſwore to the breaking of the ſhop, of which they were firſt informed by ſome bakers, who found the back window open.

James Hiſlop, a former witneſs, again called, ſaid, he, Holmes, and another, broke into Livingſton's ſhop, after robbing Taylor's. He met with them on the ſtreet; they went to the Croſcauſeway; entered the ſhop by a back window; had a candle, but does not know how it was lighted; found a great deal of copper money, which they put in a ſack, which they carried by turns. A canniſter was alſo filled with copper money, which the witneſs carried. The money was hid in holes in the Meadows; he got 1s. 6d. of it. Knows that Mrs Spottiſwoode's ſhop was broke into; but was not preſent.

Margaret Leny heard Holmes and Hiſlop ſay, they had broke into Livingſton's ſhop, and carried off a conſiderable ſum in copper in a bag, which they had concealed at the back of the Caſtle, near Wallace's Tower.

Mrs Spottiſwoode ſaid, her ſhop was broke into about the end of May. The window ſhutters were broke, and ſeveral things taken away, but ſhe could not tell the amount.—*William Crooks* and *John Bonar*, ſervants to Mrs Spottiſwoode, ſwore to the ſame effect: heard of the ſhop being broken into early in the morning from the ſervant maid; and on going down, found the windows broken, and ſome parcels taken away, and others lying in the ſtreet. They identified ſeveral parcels of razors produced.

The Jury returned their verdict on Tueſday, after the riſing of the Court of Seſſion, all in one voice finding the pannel *Guilty* of the two firſt charges in the indictment, and by a plurality of voices found him alſo guilty of the third charge.

The Chancellor of the Jury informed the Court that he was deſired by them to recommend the pannel to mercy, firſt on account of his youth, and ſecondly becauſe he did not appear to be the moſt guilty of the gang. Lord Juſtice Clerk obſerved, that the Court could do nothing in that, as mercy lay entirely with his Majeſty, and adviſed them and the friends of the unfortunate young man to apply for pardon to the King, as the Court had nothing farther to do than pronounce the ſentence of the law.

Sentence was then pronounced, ordaining the pannel to be hanged at the ordinary place of execution on Wedneſday the 22d of January next.

Robert Currie, journeyman baker, who was a witneſs on this trial, was then brought to the bar, for prevaricating on oath before the Court. After delivering their opinions, their Lordſhips ordained Currie to be impriſoned till the 18th inſt. on which day he is to ſtand on the pillory, from twelve to one, with a label on his breaſt with the following words, "*For groſs Prevarication, and concealment of the Truth upon Oath.*"

16. This day came on the trial of James Leiſhman, William Hoſſack, Alexander Boyack, Alexander Marſhal, and Robert Oliver, journeymen tailors, for a combination to raiſe their wages. James Leiſhman was outlawed for not appearing, and owing to an inaccuracy in the indictment, the Lord Advocate deſerted the diet *pro loco et tempore* againſt the other four. They will be ſerved with a new indictment.

23. This day came on the trial of *James Davidſon*, late a gentleman's ſervant, accuſed of picking the locks of drawers in three public houſes, and ſtealing therefrom ſundry articles.

The libel was reſtricted to an arbitrary puniſhment. Two other gentlemens ſervants, Mitchel and Sutherland, were ſtated to have been accomplices with the priſoner when the robberies were committed. Mitchel had abſconded, and Sutherland turned King's evidence, and was the principal witneſs on this trial, and ſwore to two of the acts of theft libelled. The perſons in whoſe families the priſoner had been ſervant appeared as witneſſes to his cha-

character, and gave him an excellent one. The Jury returned their verdict on Tuesday, finding by a plurality of voices, the libel *not proven*, and the prisoner was dismissed from the bar, after a very suitable exhortation from the Lord Justice Clerk.

After Davidson had retired, David Hunter, accused of murder, whose case we have already mentioned, was put to the bar; but, on account of the importance of the case, viz. Whether it lay with the Court or a Jury to determine on the plea of infanity offered as a defence on the part of Hunter, the Court ordered informations, and delayed the further proceedings till the 20th of January next.

The Court then took into consideration the case of *William Munro*, post-runner between Dunbeath and Thurso. Munro was brought to trial before the Circuit Court at Inverness, accused of having, in the month of July last, opened the post bag from Edinburgh to Thurso, and therefrom *stolen and feloniously abstracted* four letters specially mentioned in the indictment. The Jury returned a verdict, finding that Munro was guilty of abstracting the four letters at the time libelled; but the verdict took no notice of the place where this abstraction happened, neither did it say that the letters were *stolen* or *feloniously* abstracted. Their Lordships were unanimously of opinion, that no punishment whatever could follow on the verdict, which neither referred to the *crime libelled*, nor found the *crime proved*, and therefore they assoilzied the pannel, and dismissed him from the bar.

26. This day came on the trial of *James Steven* alias *Douglas*, accused of stealing, on the 23d July last, from an inclosure at Clerkington, an ox the property of William Lawrie, farmer in Pardovan; which he afterwards drove to Edinburgh, slaughtered, and sold to butchers and other persons there. Thirteen witnesses were examined for the Crown; and by a connected chain of evidence, the ox was traced, in the possession of the prisoner, from about two miles from the park to Edinburgh, where it was killed; and the hide, which was sold to a tanner, was produced in Court, and identified by several witnesses.—The Jury returned a verdict unanimously finding the pannel *guilty*. The Court then sentenced him to be banished for fourten years.

After sentence was pronounced on Stevens, *Mary Cock*, accused of child murder, was brought to the bar; she petitioned for banishment; and the Court, with consent of his Majesty's Advocate, banished her from Scotland for fourteen years.

Autumn West Circuit.

The Circuit Court of Justiciary was opened at Glasgow, by Lords Craig and Armadale.—*Thomas Milward*, travelling chapman, was found *guilty* of uttering counterfeit coin, knowing the same to be such, and sentenced to be transported for five years.

William Dick was charged with theft, in so far as having been employed to carry and deliver a sealed parcel, containing bank notes, he did break open the parcel and steal the notes.

The pannel denied the libel; and it was also pled for him by his counsel, that the libel, as laid, amounted only to breach of trust, and not to theft. The Court repelled the objection, and found the libel relevant, and remitted the same to an assize. It appearing from the examination *in initialibus* of the first and second witnesses called for the prosecutor, that they had been present at precognoscing several of the other witnesses, this was objected as disqualifying them to bear evidence in the trial. The counsel for the Crown withdrew those witnesses, and declined to proceed with his proof; in consequence whereof the Jury returned a verdict of *Not proved*, and the pannel was assoilzied and dismissed.

James Duncan, younger of Balgray, was accused of wilful fire raising. His Majesty's Advocate, from some circumstances attending this case, deserted the diet against him *pro loco et tempore*.

The Circuit Court of Justiciary was opened at Stirling, by the Right Hon. the Lords Craig and Armadale.

The only business before the Court was an indictment against *Margaret Mailes* for child-murder; but she having absconded and failing to appear, sentence of outlawery was pronounced against her.

The Circuit Court was opened at Inverary by Lords Craig and Armadale.

Charles Campbell was indicted for an assault; but the diet was deserted against him *pro loco et tempore*.

Archibald M'Gilvray and *Alexander M'Gilvray* were accused of deforcing Excise officers; but not appearing to stand trial, sentence of outlawry was pronounced against them.

Alexander M'Lean was accuſed of murder, committed on an infant of three months old. The pannel brought forward a plea of infanity, which on examining evidence, was fully eſtabliſhed. The Court found that his trial could not then proceed, and remitted him back to priſon; but in caſe his friends ſhould find caution to keep him in ſafe cuſtody, allowed him to be delivered over to their charge.

This finiſhes the Autumn Circuits, and we are happy to obſerve, that there have been fewer trials than uſual, and, during the whole Circuits, only two criminals have been capitally convicted,—(at Perth Circuit for highway robbery.)

THE month of December has been, on the whole, open; there was no froſt of any conſequence till the 19th, which continued with more or leſs ſeverity till the end: on the 22d ſome ſnow fell. The thermometer in the ſhade ranged from 30° to 45°; but on the 28th and 31ſt it was ſo low as 19°. The wet ſtate in which the country was in November, prevented any thing material in the operations of huſbandry being done this month. The markets continue to be regularly ſupplied with butcher meat; beef from 5d. to 7d.; mutton from 4d. to 6d.; veal 8d.; pork 4d. to 6d. Fiſh have been ſcanty and high priced. Herrings 10d. a penny. Their not being ſo cheap as formerly, is perhaps owing to great quantities being carried off to ſupply the *Glaſgow market*. The houſehold loaf is now, we believe, dearer than ever known, being 14d.

By the Engliſh report we learn, that the mild weather that prevailed about the cloſe of the laſt and beginning of the preſent month, has enabled farmers in moſt parts of the kingdom to put a much greater quantity of wheat into the ground than they expected, which is a circumſtance of the moſt favourable kind; it has alſo been highly advantageous in leſſening the conſumption of all ſorts of fodder. Though, in many caſes, the laſt year's wheats have, upon being threſhed, turned out unſound, they are on the whole far better than there was reaſon to expect. The barley and oats are likewiſe, taking them generally, in a better condition than the badneſs of the late ſeaſon promiſed. We therefore confidently hope that the preſent *diſproportionately* extravagant price of grain will be conſiderably lowered, as the farmers find time to get it threſhed out in larger quantities, which the ſetting in of the froſt muſt be favourable for. *Sugars*, which have lately fallen ſo conſiderably, are at preſent pretty ſteady, and ſeem likely to keep their price. Black Teas are from 4d. to 6d. per lb. lower, and Boheas nearly 1s. per lb. Greens have not experienced much variation. The new Fruit which has arrived, is at preſent ſcarce and dear; but more are expected. Malagas are from 48s. to 52s. Sun Raiſins, 60s. to 64s. Blooms, 80s. to 94s. Muſcadels, 108s. to 112s. Currants, 68s. to 74s. Figs, none in the market. Spices are about 15s. per cent lower. Cinnamon, from 8s. to 12s. Cloves, 8s. Mace, from 24s. to 30s. Nutmegs, from 18s. to 24s. Pimento, 10d. to 12d. Pepper, 2s. 3d. to 2s. 6d. White Pepper, 2s. 8d. to 3s.

LISTS.

PREFERMENTS.

James Colquhoun, Eſq; younger of Luſs, M. P. for the county of Dumbarton.

Right Hon. Ilay Campbell, Lord Preſident of the Court of Seſſion, to be Rector of the Univerſity of Glaſgow.

The King has been pleaſed to appoint Mr Walter Scott, advocate, to be Sheriff-depute of the ſhire or ſheriffdom of Selkirk in the room of Mr Andrew Plummer.

Doctor James Gregory to be Firſt Phyſician to his Majeſty in Scotland, in the room of Doctor Joſeph Black, deceaſed.

Mr Henry Lawrie, to be miniſter of the pariſh of Lochmaben.

Mr James Crichton, to be miniſter of the pariſh of Wamphray.

SEQUESTRATIONS.

Dec. 11. Mrs Janet Murray, brewer, North Back of the Canongate, Edinburgh.

— William and Archibald Allans and Duncan Kennedy, cattle dealers in Loge Almond.

12. William Johnſton, merchant in Dumfries.

14. Mrs Helen Clark, of the George Inn, Dumfries.

The Liſts for November and December will appear in the Appendix.

Haddington, Dec. 27.

Wheat, 62s. Barley 33s. 6d. Oats, 31s. 6d. Peaſe, 30s. Beans, 30s.

Edinburgh, Dec. 31. Oat-meal, 2s. 2½d. Bear-meal, 1s. 7d. Peaſe-meal, 1s. 7d.

PRICES OF STOCKS.

Dec. 9.	Dec. 27.
Bank Stock 156½	154½
3 per cent. red. 62⅜	—
3 per cent. conſ. —	—
4 per cent. anns. 74¼	77
India Stock 198½	—
Eng. Lot. Tic.——	——
Iriſh Lot. Tic. ——	——

THE SCOTS MAGAZINE,

APPENDIX 1799.

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BIOGRAPHICAL ACCOUNT OF JOHN INGENHOUZ, M. D.

JOHN INGENHOUZ, M. D. phyſician to his Imperial Majeſty, fellow of the Royal Society of London, and of ſeveral other learned ſocieties, was a man of great ſimplicity of manners and benevolence of diſpoſition; to whom the public are indebted for ſeveral curious and uſeful diſcoveries, particularly in the application of pneumatic chemiſtry and natural philoſophy to the purpoſes of medical and agricultural improvements. His "Experiments upon Vegetables, diſcovering their great Power of purifying the common Air in Sunſhine, and of injuring it in the Shade and at Night," firſt publiſhed in 8vo. 1779, have ſince been extended and improved, and republiſhed lately on the Continent, in Collections of his works in French and German editions, which include his papers in the "Philoſophical Tranſactions." Prefixed to theſe editions is a portrait of the author. He was a native of Breda, and for ſome time practiſed phyſic in his native country. He came to England about the year 1767, to acquire information concerning the Suttonian method of inoculating the ſmall-pox; and in 1768 (on the recommendation of the late Sir John Pringle, who very highly eſteemed him) he was engaged to go to Vienna to inoculate the Archduchefs Thereſa-Elizabeth (the only daughter of the Emperor Joſeph II.), and the Arch-

dukes Ferdinand and Maximilian, brothers of the Emperor. In the ſpring of the following year he went to Italy, and inoculated the Grand Duke of Tuſcany. The rewards of theſe ſervices were the rank of body phyſician and counſellor of ſtate to their Imperial Majeſties, with a penſion for life of about 600l. per annum. For ſeveral years paſt he has reſided in this country, to which, from his firſt acquaintance with it, he has always been much attached, and where he paſſed his time almoſt unceaſingly in ſcientific purſuits. In the "Philoſophical Tranſactions," vol. LXV. p. 1. are his Experiments on the torpedo; LXVI. 257, Eaſy methods of meaſuring the diminution of bulk taking place on the mixture of common and nitrous air, with experiments on platina; LXVIII. 1022, A ready way of lighting a candle by a very ſmall electrical ſpark; ibid. 1027, Electrical experiments to explain how far the phænomena of the electrophorus may be accounted for by Dr Franklin's theory of poſitive and negative electricity; LXIX. 376, Account of a new kind of inflammable air or gas; ibid. 537, Some new methods of ſuſpending magnetical needles; ibid. 661, Improvements in electricity; LXX. 354, On the degree of ſalubrity of the common air at ſea, compared with that of the ſea-ſhore, and that of places removed from the ſea; LXXII. 426, Some farther conſiderations on the influence of the vegetable kingdom on the animal creation.

ON THE DRAMATIC TASTE OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY. By Joseph Moser, esq.

Abridged from the European Magazine.

ADVANCING, as we do with rapidity toward the very night of the eighteenth century, and conſidering every month, as it paſſes, with perhaps greater attention than at any other period; becauſe every paſſing month ſtill more ſtrongly marks the decline of the year, and hurries us on to the cloſe of the æra in which we have exiſted; it is natural for the mental eye, glancing from the preſent, to take a retroſpective view of the ſame period of the laſt century, and to obſerve with exultation (if there is any reaſon for exultation), how much wiſer and better, as a Nation, we ſhall awake on the morning of the nineteenth, than our anceſtors did, when the Sun firſt aroſe to illuminate the beginning of the preſent eventful epoch?

Reflections emanating from this ſource would, were they purſued, lead me into a train of thinking, ſerious indeed; and perhaps, for that reaſon, neither very agreeable to my readers nor myſelf: therefore, as it has been uſual to throw a barrel to a whale when the Captain of a ſhip apprehended danger from his colliſion; or to endeavour, with any *rubbiſh* that could be collected, to divert the courſe of a ſtream which was likely to overflow its banks; I ſhall take theſe hints, and, reſerving more *ſolid* matter to the gloomy months of November or December, when it will probably be more congenial to the humours and feelings of my countrymen, confine the preſent ſpeculation to a conſideration of our Dramatic Taſte; and, as that has been ſaid to be the index that points to the diſpoſition of the people—the broad mirror in which they ſee their characters, and even their perſons, reflected—inquire, whether we have, in the courſe of a century, become more elevated in our ſentiments, more conſpicuous for rectitude and morality; and, in ſhort, whether this period has, even in thoſe points that might have been expected from the ingenuity that has been diſplayed, and the pains that has been taken by thoſe eminent *improvers* of taſte, dramatic writers

writers and theatric managers, become wiser and better than the former?

Actors, it is said by the Father of our stage and of our dramatic genius, "are the abstracts and brief chronicles of the times;" inasmuch as they unfold the Sibylline leaves of the poets, and, by finishing their sketches, by filling up their outlines, and colouring their *chiaro obscuro* pieces, bring to the view in the broadest glare of light, or throw into the deepest shade, the manners, the modes, the virtues and vices of the passing hour: therefore, it has also been said, that nothing more strongly marks the character of an age and nation, or stamps upon the mind a more indelible impression of the sense and manners of a people, than their scenic exhibitions and public shews: yet if this is allowed, it must be with some limitation, because, as we frequently, in the individual, observe the human character so varied as to be at the same time a compound of virtue and vice, of good and bad qualities; so the same observation may be extended to societies among which we, at the same period, frequently find the prominent features of refinement, and the strongest traits of civilization, more than half shadowed by the veil of barbarity; therefore, when we read of Eleusinian Mysteries, Bacchanalian Orgies, the Ludi Apollinari, or Floralia, Combats of Gladiators, &c. or that Kings and even Queens have been dragged in chains, to grace the triumph of perhaps a plebeian, can we hesitate to pronounce the people, among whom these mysteries, exhibitions, and shews, were either articles of religion, of general amusement, or the ebullitions of vanity, dissolute, cruel, and ferocious? Yet still, cruel and depraved as the taste of those nations in general was, it appears, from the brilliant specimens that have descended to us, that the writers of those times did what the writers of every age ought to do, namely, endeavoured to correct the taste of the public; and, without adverting to the labours of the philosophers and moralists, which would lead us into a disquisition too grave for our present speculation, the poets, having this in view, took care to infuse into their dramas a considerable portion both of wit and sentiment. Wit was by them, with a very few exceptions, used as an instrument to correct the vices of the age, and was founded upon the principles of general nature; for which reason, notwithstanding the change that has taken place in modes and manners; notwithstanding the operation of a series of centuries, of infinite revolutions of systems, of innumerable changes in religion, government, every thing; it is still wit, and wit refined, subtilized, and purified in the long, long course of its current. The same may be said of those sentiments founded upon the broad, the substantial basis, to which I have alluded. They have stood, like the pyramids, firm, immoveable, and immurable; and, while the flimsy materials of modern erections have crumbled into dust, their adamantine fabrics will, like those, continue to set at defiance the convulsion of empires and the corrosion of time.

Without endeavouring to rake from its ashes, or raise the *ghost* of a subject upon which much learning has been *wasted*, namely, the origin of dramatic or imitative poetry, it may, in a speculation of this nature, be sufficient to observe that Plato, in his second book of laws, seems to think it was derived from the Gods, and granted as a boon to mankind, to blunt the asperities of human life, to afford a relaxation from labour, to sooth and blandish sorrow; and also to afford the people opportunities to unbend their minds, and dedicate their leisure hours to the effusions of innocent hilarity.

As

As dramatic poetry is, by the father of philoſophy, ſaid to have had ſo divine an origin, it is little to be wondered that, in its deſcent, it was marked with the greateſt juſtneſs and propriety of thought, and clothed in the moſt exquiſite elegance of language, combined with wit, humour, ſentiment, and, what was better than all, with the pureſt morality: that Æſchylus, the firſt tragic writer that appeared with any reputation, ſhould in his works have exhibited the ſtrongeſt traits of an elevated mind; that he ſhould have endeavoured to tranſfuſe into thoſe of his audience thoſe noble and generous ſentiments with which his ſoul was inſpired; or that the Athenians, catching the flame emanating from his genius, ſhould, from barbaric rudeneſs, paſs to the firſt ſtage of refinement.

Sophocles, who was the firſt that brought tragedy (which was begun by Theſpis, and improved by Æſchylus) to perfection, was perhaps, in his Ajax, the firſt that introduced a *machine* upon the ſtage; an invention which I ſhall have occaſion to ſhew, has been of eminent uſe to many a modern production: but it ſhould alſo be obſerved, that in this ancient the ſcenic was always ſubordinate to the poetical embelliſhments; that the latter were certainly thoſe that were likely to take the ſtrongeſt hold of the paſſions of his audience; that they are naturally purſued, his characters admirably depicted, and his morality and even piety highly reſpectable.

Euripides, who was the junior, and has by the learned been conſidered as the rival of Sophocles, was by no means ſo regular a genius as the latter. According to Ariſtotle, he is conſidered as "the moſt tragical of all tragedians." Longinus thinks that he has ſoared to the *acme* of critical fire; that he has ſeized the paſſions of his audience, chained them to the chariot of Phaeton, and as his ſoul ſeems to fly with the fiery courſers, he alſo whirls thoſe of the auditors along until their brains are turned with the rapidity of the motion, and they are in danger of ſharing the fate of the driver.

Leaving this diſquiſition, as indeed diſquiſitions of this nature, after volumes have been written *pro* and *con*, have been generally left, to the public opinion; eſpecially as that has firmly eſtabliſhed the merit of this poet, by enabling him to ſtand for a long ſeries of ages againſt criticiſms which might for their minuteneſs have done honour to the contracted ideas of ſome modern reviewers; ſuch as the enormity of giving two *horns* to a doe, two daughters to Menelaus, &c.; I ſhall only obſerve that his drama, like thoſe of his predeceſſors, has been the ſeeds, the ſcions of genius, from which large plantations of the tragic bay (whoſe never-fading leaves have amply crowned many a ſubſequent writer) have ſprung, have grown, and flouriſhed.

The tragedy of the Roman ſtage is ſo contracted, that many of the learned have thought this ſpecies of poetry had no exiſtence among the Latins: yet, from what may be collected from ancient writers, may we not rather ſuppoſe that the effuſions of the "mournful Muſe" were by no means ſuited to the genius of the people? There is little doubt but that Varine's Thyeſtes and Ovid's Medea would have deſcended to us, had thoſe productions ſo far fallen in with the taſte of their age, as to have excited a demand for a multitude of copies, and preſcriptive veneration rendered thoſe copies valuable.

To return then to the Greeks, and ſlightly glance at their comedy, which being (as comedy ought always to be) founded more particularly upon natural principles, and preſenting a ſtrong picture of domeſtic arrangement, and conſequently of human life, has, when under the correction of judgment and taſte,

taſte, ever been found congenial to the humours, the paſſions, the prejudices, of every nation, and therefore been uniformly ſucceſsful.

Phormas or Crates were the firſt authors of comedy; for to divide this ſpecies of the drama into three parts or ages, the old, the middle, and the new, and from the rubbiſh of antiquity endeavour to rake authors and works that perhaps never exiſted, has (as upon another occaſion has been hinted) been the petty amuſement of contracted minds. The figure may be exquiſite, although the artiſt's name and even the date upon the pedeſtal are obliterated. The grand and majeſtic traits of a picture are likely to become the more ſtriking, from the inferior parts being thrown into ſhadow. Ariſtophanes and Shakſpeare, in their reſpective works, ſufficiently mark the æra in which they flouriſhed; and, as they were both founders of dramatic ſchools, it is certainly immaterial who were their mental anceſtors.

The comedies of Ariſtophanes have been eſteemed as an exact hiſtory of Athens; but with us they have a ſtill higher eſtimation, as containing an exact hiſtory of the human mind, of the follies and vices of his own, of this, of every age through which they have paſſed. If he has been condemned by Plutarch for inequality of ſtyle, it ſhould be allowed that his eccentricity was like that of a modern dramatic ſatiriſt, (Foote) occaſioned by the ardour with which he purſued, and the ſeverity with which he laſhed the vices of his times; and as he had, like his deſcendant the faculty of ſeeing, and the art of expoſing the ridiculous, which is the irregular ſide of every character, the abſurdity of every meaſure; he is only anomalous, from an exuberance of genius, when he employs his ſatire as an engine of reformation, and endeavours to laugh men out of their follies and vices. This he probably did with good effect; for human nature was always the ſame, and we have known many who feared the Muſe that had no other fear.

Plautus is the moſt ancient Latin author whoſe plays are tranſmitted to us in any degree of perfection; he certainly wrote in an age, and for a people, not perfectly refined, and perhaps, from the inauſpicious circumſtances of his fortune, was obliged to adapt his dramas to the capacities of the vulgar. Perhaps too, his ſituation in early life had led him much into the company of characters ſuch as he repreſents. Like Shakſpeare, or Hogarth, he could only, in his firſt works, delineate the objects before him; but when he had advanced a few ſteps in his art; when his mind expanded, and his genius, unſhackled, ſoared far, far indeed, above his mechanical profeſſion, we then find that his wit became more brilliant, his humour more exquiſite, his ſtyle more refined, and even, what was much wanted, his morality purified: in ſhort, we find that his productions have ſtood the teſt of time, and excited the imitation of poets in all ages; and that both ancient and modern writers have concurred in the celebration of his praiſe.

When Terence appeared on the great theatre of the world, the Roman people were more poliſhed; we accordingly obſerve that not only the language but the morality of his pieces riſes far above that of his predeceſſor *. There has frequently been a parallel drawn between theſe

* We had in this country a bad imitation of this author in the dramas of the middle of this century, and, with the exception of Foote's pieces, down to the year 1775. Like him, the aim of many authors (ſome of whom are ſtill living) was an elevation of ſtyle to a middle ſphere, far above proſe, though ſtill below poetry, and a proportionate elevation of ſentiments, till they hung, like Mahomet's tomb, betwixt earth and heaven. Theſe half-pious, half-

two authors, in which the character of the former has been marked for its fierceneſs and vehemence; of the latter, for its coolneſs and ſedateneſs, for never ſuffering his ſtyle to ſoar to the loftineſs of tragedy, nor to ſink into farcical vulgarity. In the ſcenic art, and the conduct of his fables, Terence is far beyond his rival: we may, however, leave all theſe ancient authors with this general character, viz. that there is in their dramas a large portion of true wit and humour, and genuine, becauſe natural, ſentiments; and that their faults, for faults they certainly had, are thoſe which rather ariſe from an exuberance than a *paucity* of ideas.

In this country, in the reigns and under the influence of Eliſabeth and James the Firſt, the ſtage emerged from that barbariſm in which it had been for ages enveloped. Long after the deſtruction of Athens, and of Rome, when the calm of monaſtic dullneſs finiſhed what the rage of Gothic ferocity began, and eſpecially during thoſe centuries emphatically termed *dark*, the languiſhing ſtate of the arts and of letters, and the general ignorance of the times, are ſtrongly marked in their dramas. The firſt form which plays aſſumed, when, like thoſe of Theſpis, they again took their ſtation in a cart, was that of *Myſteries*. Theſe were, for a conſiderable period, the faſhionable amuſements of every rank of perſons, in almoſt every country of Europe. To theſe ſucceeded *Moralities*, of which the ſubjects were, in moſt inſtances, farcical; although their cataſtrophe, with the aſſiſtance of the Devil and *Iniquity*, were, as their name expreſſes, moral. Thoſe of the former, it ſhould be added, were always religious; though, indeed, into both theſe ſpecies of the drama were generally interwoven a number of ludicrous ſcenes, which, although performed without maſks, were probably corruptions of the ancient Mimes and Atellanæ.

To the immortal honour of Shakſpeare, it was decreed that his pen, like a magician's wand, ſhould chaſe theſe monſters from the ſtage; and a very curſory view of his drama will enable us to diſcern that he has taken every opportunity to ridicule the abſurd taſte of the age in which he flouriſhed. Johnſon, Beaumont and Fletcher, Maſſinger, and others, in whoſe pieces ſolid ſenſe and ſterling wit prevailed, formed a new dramatic æra, until their works, with the other productions of literature and the arts, were driven away by theſe fanatical barbarians that followed the ſtandard of the Uſurper Cromwell.

The licentious reign of Charles II. although deformed with vices; many of which, perhaps, aroſe from the ebullitions of ſucceſs, and an endeavour to introduce a ſyſtem totally the reverſe of that coarſeneſs of manners, of modes of life, and even of habits of genius. The hypocritical ſolemnity that had marked the preceding period, led the Court, which is the ſtandard of the manners of the age, into the oppoſite extreme. The polite libertiniſm that had received too much encouragement from the foreign refinement introduced by the cavaliers, and the "mob of gentlemen that wrote with eaſe," was in no place more conſpicuous than on the ſtage. In a very ſhort ſpace, the immorality and indelicacy of the drama had, under the auſpices of Dryden, Buckingham, Etheridge, Sedley, Davenant,

immoral effuſions, without any regard to time, place, or character, were dragged in upon every occaſion. From its narcotic effect upon the audience, this mode of writing obtained the name of Sentimental *Comedy*.

'Piety in Pattens' was the firſt arrow which was ſhot at this ſtatue of *falſe taſte*. The School for Scandal and Critic completed for a time what the modern Ariſtophanes begun: whether it is not likely to revive with additional abſurdity; or rather, whether ſentimental words have not given place to ſentimental ſituations, it will perhaps be neceſſary to inquire?

Davenant, and a hundred others, arisen to such a height, that every woman who had the least regard for her reputation banished herself from the theatre. Yet the plays produced at this period, however deficient in points of morality and delicacy (an unpardonable deficiency in my opinion), have, when pruned of their exuberances, been endured, nay applauded, in graver times, for their wit and ingenuity.

The constellation of elegant writers which illuminated the close of the last, and the beginning of this century, were, with their immediate predecessors, attacked by an author of the name of Jeremy Collier, a non-juring clergyman, with a keenness of dissection and asperity of observation which, in a great degree, contributed to the reformation of their dramas. Seated upon a proud eminence, encouraged by a large party, and commanding every auxiliary which wit, ingenuity, and extensive erudition, could supply: supported on the one side by religion, on the other by morality; appealing not only to the passions and feelings of the individual, but to the great and general interests of society; shall we not say that he had immensely the advantage of his opponents? He certainly had! Dryden, who had the most genius, and consequently the most sensibility, confessed his superiority, or rather the superiority of virtue and truth; and, it has been said, resolved to reform his Muse; perhaps the distresses that clouded his latter days, and doubtless frequently urged his reluctant pen, prevented his carrying this laudable design into effect.

Yet, whatsoever provocation Collier might have experienced from the immorality and profaneness of the stage, he seems to have carried his revenge too far, and to have pursued it rather to the annihilation than the reformation of his object: indeed it has been agreed by all, that he uses his amputation knife too freely, and has lopped off many limbs that were by no means gangrened; nay, it is certain that he has frequently applied the caustic where there was no *proud flesh*, and produced *mortification* from wounds that would have cicatrized of themselves.

Whether this rough operator *, or the authors alluded to, many of whom, under his discipline, could not be termed *patients*, did or did not entirely refine the stage from the grossness and ribaldry of their predecessors, is a question irrelevant to the present speculation. Certain it is, that they have left us, both in tragedy and comedy, many specimens of the highest excellence, and which, although at present shrouded from our sight, banished from the stage, and wrapped in the more than Egyptian darkness of these modern times, will, as long as our language lasts, and any thing like taste is resident in this island, always find admirers in the closet.

Accurately to trace the drama through the middle of this century, would be an unnecessary toil; because, if it had any prominent feature, it was the feature of that period: it was of a middling texture. We can observe in it few instances of striking beauties, and as few of glaring faults: it may only be generally observed, that from about the year thirty, dramatic wit and humour have been gradually declining among us, and dulness, with gentle and regular approaches, seems constantly to endeavour to encircle us in her arms.

* Collier, in his Treatise "On the Immorality of the Stage," which was first published in 1695, and a second edition early in 1696, divides the subject into several heads; under which he attacks the stage for its immodesty, profaneness, abuse of the clergy, encouragement of immorality, &c. He then particularly censures several plays, and sums up the whole with the opinions of heathen philosophers, of fathers of the church, and of legislators, respecting theatrical representations.

Yet, as Dr Johnſon obſerves that the world is termed ſpherical, although there are upon its ſurface many mountains and protuberances, ſo, with reſpect to the dramatic writers in thoſe times to which I have alluded, there hath in our regular approaches in the dulneſs which I have celebrated, and in which we are now happily enveloped, been many anomalies. Perhaps the name of Murphy would be almoſt ſufficient to reſcue the age of his writing from the general charge which I have brought againſt it; but I find, and congratulate my country, that he does not ſtand alone: the *early* productions of Cumberland claim a diſtinguiſhed niche in the the temple of fame; and if they partake of any ſpark of the genius of Terence, certainly, in thoſe of Sheridan, that of Congreve ſeems to blaze.

Perhaps, had I been enumerating a chronological ſeries of authors, I ought, in point of time, to have mentioned Goldſmith before the latter; eſpecially, as his excellent comedy of the Good Natured Man, and ſtill more particularly, his truly pleaſant production, "She Stoops to conquer," were bold attempts to awaken the public from that ſentimental doze into which it had been lulled by Kelly, and others of that gentle and inoffenſive cla's of writers.

In directing the taſte of the town to a ſpecies of comedy which, if it had neither the elegant keenneſs or wit of the former, nor even thoſe broad traits of humour which diſtinguiſhed the latter production of Goldſmith, had certainly a pleaſing vein of ſprightlineſs that rendered it a very agreeable entertainment, neither Colman nor Garrick, whether conſidered as ſeparate or conjunctive authors, muſt be forgotten. It would alſo be equally unjuſt to omit the dramas of Mrs Cowley, Mrs Inchbald, and ſome other ladies, whoſe genius ſeems to have borne the ſame proportion to that of Mrs Centlivre and her female predeceſſors, as that of the authors I have mentioned does to their male.

Foote was ſo eccentric a genius; his pieces depended ſo much upon the introduction of caricature reſemblances of living perſons; upon the prominent *trait* of the hour, upon local alluſions, and, in ſhort, upon

"Catching the manners living as they riſe,"

that it is impoſſible to claſs him among our regular dramatiſts; or to find any words to deſcribe him ſo juſtly as his own. I ſhall therefore quote a few lines from one of his prologues; becauſe they ſeem, with as much truth as wit, to give the character of the humouriſt, and of his works:

"One Ariſtophanes, a wicked wit,
"Who never heeded grace in what he writ,
"Had mark'd the manners of this Grecian Sage;
"And, thinking him fit ſubject for the ſtage,
"Forth from his lumber call'd with curious care
"His voice, his look, his geſture, gait, and air;
"His affectation, conſequence, and mien,
"And boldly launched him on the comic ſcene:
"Loud peals of plaudit thro' the circle ran,
"All felt the ſatire, for all *knew the man.*"

Although I am by no means an advocate for the perſonal licenſe in which this author indulged himſelf, I heartily ſubſcribe to the opinion of an eminent writer, "That a comedy without humour, is as extravagant an idea as a tragedy without paſſion, or an epic poem without ſublimity."

In delineating the objects of common life, the portraits which we draw ſhould not only be faithful but ludicrous copies of extravagant originals. The author has before him three mod.s—character, caricature, and